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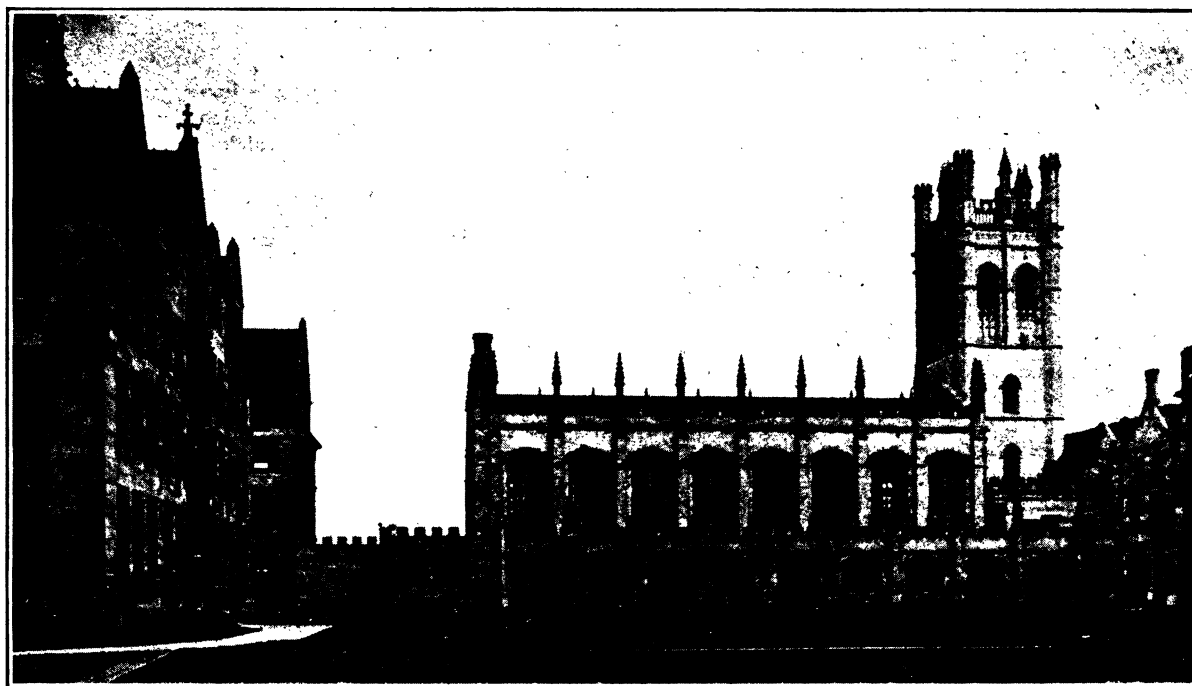
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The Philippine Teacher

A PERIODICAL FOR PHILIPPINE PROGRESS

EDITED UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF THE GENERAL SUPERINTENDENT
OF EDUCATION



A CORNER OF THE CAMPUS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Photo by Jennings

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• Manila, P. I.

THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION

A Statement of organization and aims published for general information

The Bureau of Education was organized by the United States Philippine Commission in January, 1901, and is one of several bureaus under the Department of Public Instruction. All public schools in the Philippines, except in the Moro Province, are under the charge of the General Superintendent of Education, the chief of the bureau.

For purposes of school administration, the Philippine Archipelago is divided into thirty-five school divisions, besides the Moro Province, in each of which there is a division superintendent of schools. In four instances, the division superintendents are governors of the provinces. In the remaining cases they are employees of the bureau and receive salaries ranging from \$1,600 to \$3,000 per annum. The three technical schools of the government—the Philippine Normal School, the Philippine School of Arts and Trades, and the Philippine Nautical School—also have superintendents whose status is the same as that of superintendents of school divisions.

The bureau employs and pays the salaries of 863 American and 294 Filipino teachers, the latter known as Insular teachers to distinguish them from the Municipal teachers. The salaries of American teachers range from \$900 to \$2000, the mean compensation being \$1200. There are, however, above this figure, 211 positions. Promotions are made by the General Superintendent of Education, subject to the approval of the Secretary of Public Instruction, whenever the merit of a teacher becomes conspicuous and there are vacancies in the better paid positions. In addition to the 294 Filipino teachers, who are paid salaries ranging from \$240 to \$600 per year, there are at the present time 3,700 Filipino municipal teachers appointed by division superintendents under regulations of the General Superintendent, who are paid from funds of the municipality in which they teach. These teachers receive at the present time an average compensation of 21 pesos, Philippine currency, monthly.

The work of the Bureau of Education includes the organization and conduct of primary schools, which teach a three-year English course; of intermediate schools, which give three years' additional instruction, and which lay great emphasis upon industrial training—in tool work, agriculture, and housekeeping; of provincial high schools, which are maintained in part by the provincial governments, in which five different courses of from two to four years each are given. These courses are in (1) literature, history, and the sciences, (2) teaching, (3) commerce, (4) agriculture, (5) arts and trades.

There were in the month of October, 1904, 364,000 pupils who received instruction in the public schools. Of this number, 334,000 were in the primary schools, and about 12,000 in the intermediate and high school courses; about 16,000 pupils are in the 300 night schools for the instruction of adults in provincial towns or in the night schools of the city of Manila.

The work of the American teacher is mainly of two kinds: first, supervising school districts; second, teaching in intermediate or high schools, or in one of the three technical schools. Teachers in the provincial high schools become members of small American communities, of congenial tastes and high character. These schools are usually situated at the capitals of the provinces. The surroundings are sufficiently comfortable, and the work corresponds in most respects to that of a class room instructor in the United States. Women teachers, almost without exception, are assigned to duty in the provincial high schools or intermediate schools, where they can have the advantages of American society and an American home.

The work of school district supervision, however, is pursued under very different conditions. The teacher usually lives alone in a town separated by some miles from other communities, and very frequently he is the only American resident in a large area. As supervising teacher, he is the representative of the division superintendent in the district. He must consult tactfully and helpfully with the municipal president and council, represent the school needs of the locality to this body, and obtain their co-operation and municipal support. His relationship with the people of the town must be kind, helpful, and above reproach. He has under him a corps of native teachers of from six to thirty, whose work he lays out and whom he constantly visits and assists in its discharge. He has the task of organizing new schools, especially in hamlets, known as "barrios," which are separated from the town centers. A great part of the time of the supervising teacher is spent in school visitation, traveling sometimes on foot or by horse and vehicle, and sometimes by banca or canoe. As a part of their duty, these teachers have to acquaint themselves thoroughly with the geography of their districts. They must know every hamlet and road, and must thoroughly understand the social composition of the community where they are working. This is work which can obviously only be done by a man. For this reason, the greater majority of the teaching force are men. In many cases, however, a man and wife are assigned together to a town, the man carrying on the work of supervision and the woman the instruction of the advanced classes in the central municipal school.

Most of these teachers rent their own homes in the town centers, having their own establishments and servants, which can be maintained at moderate expense, according to American standards. At other times the American teacher, if alone, boards with some Filipino family. Traveling expenses of the supervisory teachers in their work are paid for by the Bureau of Education.

Appointments of teachers in the United States are now made exclusively from an eligible list certified by the Philippine Civil Service Board as a result of examinations conducted in the United States or the Philippines. Those appointed contract for two years' service in the Islands; their traveling expenses to Manila are paid, and, in order to protect the government, an amount equivalent to this is deducted from their salaries at the rate of ten per cent per month until the total cost to the government has been repaid. Upon the completion of two years' satisfactory service the amount thus deducted is returned to the teachers. At the end of three years' satisfactory service the teacher may resign and receive half salary for thirty days and full pay for any vacation that immediately follows the resignation. If he elects to remain in the service but desires to return to the United States on leave he may be granted such leave on full pay for the vacation period of his division, at present ten weeks, with sixty days' half salary covering the average time going and returning. The school year is uniform throughout the Islands, and is at present fixed at forty weeks, with twelve weeks' vacation, ten of which are consecutive during the months of April, May, and June, and two at the Christmas holidays. These ten weeks' spring vacation allow teachers to visit nearby Oriental countries and give them a chance to be refreshed by change of climate and scenes. The emoluments and opportunities of the service have called forth a class of young men and young women who are products of the best American homes and universities.

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VOL. I

MANILA, P. I., FEBRUARY 15th, 1905

No. 3

LAND REGISTRATION IN THE PHILIPPINES

By D. R. WILLIAMS, Member of the Law Firm of Coudert Brothers, and Late Associate Judge, of the Court of Land Registration

[This article is prescribed by the General Superintendent for use in connection with the work in civil government in Grade VI.]

There are few questions which affect a people or a society more closely than that of title to land. The wealth of a nation, no less than the prosperity and contentment of its people, are measured largely by the productivity of the soil and the pride of ownership of the citizen. The disturbers of government, whether they assume the form of ladrones, or the various forms of anarchy and socialism, find few recruits from among the land-holding classes. Property owners have a personal interest in maintaining the law, and that State is freest from internal disorder the mass of whose citizens have homes of their own. The ownership of land, however, to be valuable, must be coupled with security in its possession. For this reason governments have been interested from the beginning in devising plans by which rights of property might be evidenced, and the owners protected from litigation and loss. It is the purpose of this article to take a brief survey of what has been done in this regard in the Philippines, and to describe the present opportunities offered the people both to secure and protect title to land.

Prior to 1889 there existed in the Islands what were known as offices of "Anotadurias" or "Receptorias" of mortgages. Persons dealing with lands had their instrument transcribed in these books provided they wished to make them a matter of public record. There was nothing, however, either requiring or limiting such registration. Any person was free to present an instrument for record, while no particular penalty attached to him who failed to do so. With the multiplication of the books containing these entries, and the utter absence of any proper indices, the system—if it can be termed such—soon became worse than useless. It confused rather than helped, for, despite a certain fictitious value given to such entries, it was practically impossible to tell therefrom the condition of any property. As a result every person claiming land became the depository of his own documents, and relied upon their preservation to maintain his title. In the general uncertainty the value of land, both as a commodity and as a security, was reduced to a minimum. To remedy this defect, and to restore real estate credit, there was extended to the Philippines in 1889 the registration

system known as "La Ley Hipotecaria" (Mortgage Law), and, as supplementary thereto, the acts known as the "Notarial Law" and the "Rules and Regulations for Drafting Public Documents."

The central idea of the Mortgage Law was to furnish absolute certainty of ownership as to all lands registered under its provisions. In theory the law left little to be desired, but its purpose was accomplished with so much detail, and its requirements were so exacting, that comparatively few of the people were able to profit by it. It is extremely difficult to characterize it clearly.

Provision was made, in the first place, by which entries might be transferred from the old "Anotadurias" to the new books. The time for such transfer was limited, after which the old entries could not prejudice the rights of third persons acquired pursuant to the new registry. Provision was made also by which persons who held deeds executed prior to the Mortgage Law might record their interest provided they justified their title by trustworthy documents, and such interest was not recorded in favor of another person. Every property recorded was given a particular number and allotted a certain number of pages in the registry. Thereafter every transaction affecting the estate, whatever its nature, was entered in consecutive order following the primary record of ownership. The registrar was forbidden to record any documents *unless the rights of the party to the instrument were properly of record*, or if such interest was in the name of another. It will be seen, therefore, that as to those properties *actually recorded*, the new system furnished an easy and certain method of determining the status of the title. The difficulty lay in the fact, however, that comparatively few titles were in such shape as to permit the original entry of ownership—without which entry it was made impossible to register any documents affecting the land. The great mass of the property of the Islands was, therefore, without the pale of the law.

To relieve in part this anomalous condition there was provided by the law what were known as "Possessory Information Proceedings." By this proceeding a person

who lacked a record title of ownership was permitted to register his interest by previously proving his possession of the land. This was done by a judicial proceeding, after a full series of notices and proofs, and was a somewhat lengthy and complicated procedure. These "entries of possession," however, were without prejudice to third persons, and could only be converted into records of ownership after the lapse of twenty years. They did not furnish any guaranty of title in the recorded owner, and were valuable only as they permitted the public registration of documents affecting the property—with the right to offer same in evidence, etc.

Another feature of the Mortgage Law which discouraged its general application was the numerous conditions and circumstances required of public documents to permit their registration—the absence of any of which conditions nullified the inscription. Registrars were required to pass not only upon the capacity of the parties to the contract, but also upon the legality and sufficiency of the instruments offered for record. To prepare a document combining all the requisites for registration was beyond the capacity of any but a skilled practitioner.

All public instruments were required to be executed by a notary public. The notary retained the original instrument and issued a certified copy to the parties, this latter copy being the one registered. To insure that such copy contained all the conditions for record, the law provided that a Notary who omitted any necessary provision should indemnify the interested parties for all damages caused by his error. The same provision also appears in the "General Instructions for Drafting Public Documents." The close connection, therefore, between the Mortgage Law and the Notarial Act is apparent.

With the exception of Manila there was but one Notary in each province. This naturally threw the preparation of all documents into the hands of a few persons, giving room not only for extortion but hampering as well the free movement of property.

The Mortgage Law, therefore, while possessed of good features, offered and offers no general relief. It is complicated and expensive in practice and poorly suited to the peculiar conditions existing in these Islands. The mass of the people were and are in no position to profit by it. It is estimated that in the nine years the law was in force prior to American occupation less than ten per cent of the property claimed by individuals was registered in any form. Even as to the small portion recorded, the loss and destruction of the land records in most of the provinces by reason of the war, renders formal proof of such registration difficult if not impossible.

We have discussed this act somewhat in detail for the reason that it still continues in force in the Islands and is regarded with reverence by many people. We have seen, however, from the outline given, that even with all its parts working it furnished relief to but comparatively few property holders. We shall show now that with the modifications worked in the system since American occupation, its field has become so restricted and uncertain as

to practically nullify it as a means of evidencing general property rights in the Islands.

The provision of the law forbidding the registration of an instrument unless the property described therein is of record, is still binding. The loss of the land records in the provinces, however, has destroyed this record evidence of ownership on the part of many who once had their property registered, while the procedure by which such entries can be restored is both indefinite and of questionable validity. As to that large class of persons whose original ownership was never recorded, the only method through which they could once get their primary entry, i. e., "Possessory Information Proceedings," has been done away with by the Code of Civil Procedure. This eliminates from taking advantage of such act the great majority of the land-holders of the Islands.

The burden still remains upon registrars of passing upon the form and sufficiency of instruments and the capacity of parties, but the Notarial Law and the Regulations for Drafting Public Documents, which divided such burden between the registrar and the notary, have been repealed. Notaries no longer exercise any supervision whatever over the legality of instruments acknowledged by them, or the capacity of parties thereto, or whether or not such instruments contain the requisites for registration. Should a registrar, however, either through ignorance or complaisance, register an instrument lacking in some legal formality, he not only renders himself personally liable but the registration is invalid.

The requirements of the Mortgage Law in the matter of registration of instruments are so involved as to require an adept to properly apply its provisions. Following American occupation the position of registrar has been occupied mostly by persons to whom a thorough knowledge of the Mortgage Law was impossible. As a consequence the greater portion of the entries made in the provinces during recent years are invalid under the provisions of that act, and serve only to complicate a difficult problem.

While the continuance of the Mortgage Law in force is possibly expedient in view of the prejudices of the people in its favor, it serves little practical use in its present maimed and crippled condition and possibly diverts the attention of land holders from the new system which is offered them. Comparatively few titles are registered under the mortgage law, while the events of the past few years have rendered many of such entries doubtful. As to lands not registered thereunder, the law provides no means by which an original entry can now be made.

This brings us to a consideration of "The Land Registration Act," administered through the Court of Land Registration. This system is a product of the new régime in the islands and is offered the people both as a substitute for the Mortgage Law and as a means through which an absolute title, guaranteed by the government, can be evolved from the general insecurity now prevailing. Its advantages are open to all persons claiming to own lands, irrespective of whether their title is recorded under pre-

vious acts, or whether or not they have a complete paper title. It is only necessary that they prove in some legal manner that they are in fact the owners of the property and are the persons entitled to it.

The system is that known generally as the "Torrens Registration Act," and undoubtedly represents the best scheme for evidencing ownership of land which has yet been devised.

The plan of the new law is simple, its pivotal point being that the "title" to the land is registered instead of simply the instruments affecting title. In other words, instead of a registration of documents, the existence of which can be ascertained only with difficulty, there is substituted a registration of the title itself, which title is guaranteed by the government and evidenced by a "Certificate" which shows upon its face at all times the exact status of the property.

The process of registration, if fairly understood, is comparatively simple. Any person believing himself to be the owner of land files with the registrar of deeds of his province or with the clerk of the Court of Land Registration in Manila, as he prefers, an application asking that such land be registered in his name, accompanying the application with whatever documents he may have showing title. It is not essential that such documents prove title in him, as this may be done in other ways. He sets out in his application a description of the land and how it came to be owned by him, that is, his source of title. He further states in his application the names of the occupants of the land, if any, as also the names of the adjoining property owners. If the land is encumbered in any way, or if any person other than the applicant claims an interest therein, the names of such persons must be given with a statement of their claims. As the title, if granted, must be for a specific piece of ground, the applicant is also required to file a plan of the ground claimed, sufficiently accurate to enable the property to be definitely located.

This application, when received by the Court, is referred to an examiner of titles for the province where the land is situated. The examiner makes such investigation as is possible from the documents accompanying the application and the situation on the ground, and reports to the Court. If his report is unfavorable, the applicant is given an opportunity to withdraw his application or to

continue the proceedings. If the report is favorable or, in any event, if the applicant elects to proceed, notice is at once served by the Court upon all parties interested that the application will be heard upon a certain date and that they must appear on or before that time and show cause, if any they have, why title should not be issued as prayed for. This notice is served upon the occupants of the land and the adjoining owners, as also upon those holding any encumbrance on the property or claiming an interest in it. A copy of the notice is posted on the land and in the municipal building, while it is also published in two newspapers, one English and one Spanish. Upon the date of hearing the whole question of title is gone into by the Court. If there are any oppositions, they are determined. If not, and it appears from the documents filed or from the proof

offered upon the hearing, that the applicant has title, decree is issued in his favor. If he fails to prove title, the proceedings have at least shown what steps are necessary to perfect his claim. The decree of the Court is entered in the registration book of the province where the land is situated and becomes the "Original Certificate of Title." An exact copy of this certificate is issued to the owner and marked "Owner's Duplicate Certificate." Thereafter, when any transaction is had affecting the land, less than a sale, the duplicate certificate is presented to the Registrar and a memorandum of the encumbrance noted upon the original certificate and the owner's duplicate. In the event of sale the vendor's duplicate certificate is surrendered and cancelled and a new certificate entered and issued to the grantee.



DANIEL R. WILLIAMS, ESQ.

It is not our purpose to describe in detail the workings of "The Land Registration Act" after title is once secured. It is only necessary to say that it provides a simple and inexpensive method of dealing with property, and that the certificate of ownership furnishes at all times a complete abstract of title.

The main thing to be borne in mind is that the bulk of the property of the Islands is not registered, and that the only efficacious means of getting it of record is through the new law. This law affords a way by which any person who claims lands can secure an absolute, registered title to them provided his claim is a just one. It is extremely doubtful, however, if any considerable number of landholders yet appreciate what this means, or understand the advantages which would accrue to them from having their

titles recorded. They have grown so used to keeping their few muniments of title in their own possession, and have exercised such jealous guard over them, that they do not realize either the greater advantages or the greater security which would result from having them recorded. As a result both the purchase and mortgaging of property today is a hazardous venture. Whatever faith an individual owner may have in his title, unless his ownership is recorded there is absolutely no way by which a third person can be sure there is no outstanding interest. The people must be educated to realize that by the registration of their property they not only place their ownership beyond question and litigation, but they also increase its value whether for sale or as security.

The cost of registration under the new law—which seldom exceeds forty or fifty pesos aside from the plan—is a small consideration when weighed over against the fact that a questionable and uncertain title is transformed into an absolute and infeasible one guaranteed by the government. It would at least seem the part of wisdom on the part of those attempting to get their lands of record, to do so under the new law, and thus save further trouble or expense with their titles. A maximum charge of twenty pesos is made for all properties assessed at less than two hundred pesos.

By Chapter VI of the Public Land Act (926) provision is made whereby all persons who initiated proceedings to secure title deeds to their property under the various Royal Decrees of Spain, but who failed to complete such proceedings, may now perfect their unfinished claims and receive a certificate of title. This is done through the Court of Land Registration, the procedure being the same to all intents as that outlined for the ordinary application for registration of title. For the benefit of that large class of persons who had been occupying and cultivating land in good faith, under claim of ownership, but who have not heretofore taken any steps to secure paper title, it is provided by such Act that a possession of ten years will conclusively presume a government grant and entitle such occupant to a certificate of title. Every inducement possible is offered the people to evidence their ownership in a definite and positive manner.

It may be that the owners of small parcels, who have no occasion to negotiate their holdings, will not at once feel the necessity for registration; however, the owners of larger tracts should early realize the desirability of relieving their ownership of the uncertainty which surrounds it under the Mortgage Law by securing an unimpeachable title. Now that there are examiners of title in every province it is hoped that through them, the people generally will seriously study the proposition. In this way, and through the liberal opportunities afforded by the Bureau of Public Lands to secure a gratuitous title to lands, it is believed that in the near future the people of these Islands will achieve that prosperity which the richness of their soil makes so abundantly possible.

MEASURES TO CORRECT THE TENDENCY TO TUBERCULOSIS

[Begun in December number]

LESSON II

3. Let us consider some of the chief sources of tubercular infection:

(a) Food is one of the frequent sources of tubercular infection, or, as already said, the flesh of beeves, sheep, and swine may be infected with the tubercle bacilli. Thorough cooking, either by boiling or other methods, would destroy these bacilli, but, unfortunately, the digestibility of meat is sometimes, and its sapidity often, diminished by thorough cooking; and as the taste of meat and its digestibility are matters that appeal to us all instantly, we are likely to run the future risk of tuberculosis by leaving our meat in a condition wherein it is both palatable and digestible.

To meet this danger, the government in these Islands, as well as governments elsewhere, have instituted a system of meat inspection. It is not always possible to detect tubercular meat by the naked eye, and the use of the microscope and various stains and the most elaborate methods of the laboratory are necessary at times. It is also possible that tubercle bacilli may adhere to the outside of thoroughly cooked foods if they are handled by tubercular persons or remain in the vicinity of those afflicted with tuberculosis; therefore, all food should be carefully protected by appropriate covering.

(b) Various drinks may be contaminated by tubercle bacilli, milk especially. Broth is an excellent medium for the culture of tubercular bacilli, and the bacilli may be left on drinking vessels by persons suffering with tuberculosis.

(c) The air we breathe often contains the bacilli; this is especially so in crowded apartments, in unventilated rooms and in public places. Therefore the necessity of abundant and thorough ventilation is obvious.

One of the most frequent causes of the contamination of the atmosphere is the habit which persons have of expectorating. The sputum becomes dry where it falls; the bacilli mingle with the dust, are blown by the wind, and are inhaled by people, and tuberculosis results; or, the sputum may be washed away by the rains, and the bacilli become mingled with the water or other fluid which may be drunk, and with the same result.

(d) Local infection with tuberculosis does occur. Many instances are on record of physicians having become infected in performing operations on tubercular patients, or while examining tubercular individuals.

The four methods given above are not the only means whereby tuberculosis may be contracted, but are sufficient to demonstrate that tuberculosis is an ever present danger wherever many human beings exist, and

the prolonged illness which it causes and the large number of deaths for which it is accountable make it truly "the great white plague."

It may not be amiss to present a few of the more common symptoms and signs of tuberculosis. We are all familiar with the cough, the shortness of breath, and the emaciation; the night sweats; the sputum spotted with blood; the hemorrhages; which are the usual symptoms presenting themselves. But many persons suffer for years with tuberculosis and yet manifest few, if any, of these symptoms.

In some cases wherein tuberculosis of the meninges or membrane of the brain exists, there are evidences of greater mental activity, and this activity may last for years, but the end is usually disastrous (precocious children).

All persons are not equally subject to this disease. Generally speaking, the robust individual with a large chest capacity and chest mobility, is much less likely to contract tuberculosis than others. Therefore, one method of diminishing the number of tubercular cases is to endeavor to develop the chest, lungs and other organs of all children; and the purpose of this paper, as I understand it, is to point out some of the simpler methods whereby these developments may be accomplished.

The phrase "chest capacity" may be easily understood, for it signifies, in general terms, the number of cubic inches or centimeters of air which the lungs may contain. The chest mobility on the other hand may be taken to indicate a measure of the air which represents the difference between the quantity of air taken into the lungs at deep inspiration, and remaining after a forced expiration. It is true that a person may have a considerable chest mobility with only a moderate chest capacity. The reverse of this proposition is also true. The combination of the two is devoutly to be desired.

4. Tubercular Tendency. If, as said above, all persons are not equally subject to tuberculosis, it would seem possible, if we knew the cause of this difference and could find a method whereby those of a tuberculous tendency could be made to resemble those of a non-tuberculous tendency, that we might find a method of preventing tuberculosis.

We are familiar with the fact that the lungs of the human being resemble somewhat a tree, with its branches, its twigs, and its terminal leaves. The trachea, or windpipe, may be considered the trunk of the tree; the larger tubes, or bronchi, the branches; the smaller tubes, or bronchioles, the twigs, and the small air-sacs at the ends of the smaller bronchi (bronchioles) correspond to the leaves.

The bronchioles and the air-sacs will be considered, because it is through their agency mainly that our blood becomes aerated, that is, absorbs oxygen, and gives off carbon dioxide. The bronchioles and air-sacs are covered with minute ramifications of blood

vessels. One set of these vessels brings the dark venous blood over the surface of the bronchioles and air-sacs, which in normal conditions, are alternately filled at inspiration and emptied at expiration with atmospheric air wherein the oxygen is contained. Now, the lung tissue in question is so delicate and thin, that the oxygen-hungry blood on the one side, and the oxygen of the air on the other, are in sufficiently close contact for the oxygen to pass into the blood. At the same time, the carbon dioxide in the blood, which represents in some measure the amount of material consumed in the body, also passes through the same tissue, becomes commingled with the air somewhat exhausted of oxygen, and is expired. The blood, as you know, then changes from dark to light red, or from venous to arterial.

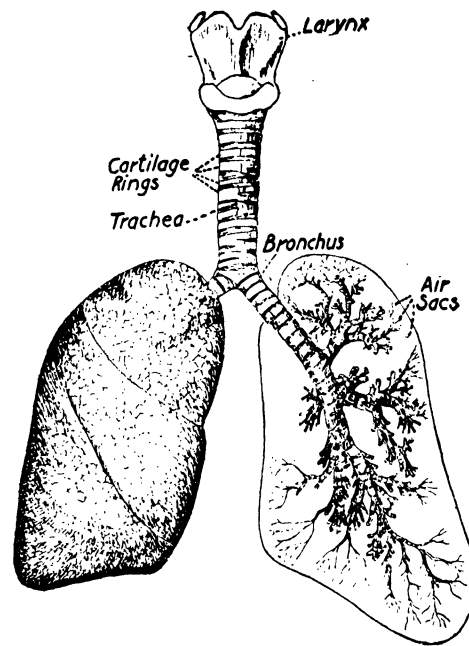


DIAGRAM OF THE HUMAN LUNGS

Now, if this process is carried on perfectly, and the air is pure, the tissues, as a rule, are vigorous and able to resist the attack of any malignant organism. But let us suppose for an instant that the expiration and inspiration movements are embarrassed, then the air vessels or sacs remain only partly exhausted

at expiration, or partly filled at inspiration; and any object (tubercle bacillus) drawn into its air sac is likely to remain therein, so that with the diminution of the function of the organs (bronchioles and air sacs), there are introduced two elements of danger:

- (a) An impaired vitality or power of resistance of the air-sacs themselves; and
- (b) The possibly continuous presence of a morbid agent, or cause of disease.

If you will examine the chest of a comrade who is breathing quietly, in a sitting or lying posture, you will find that the lower part of his chest moves a good deal more than the upper part. It will be seen then, also, in men especially, that the upper part of the chest, about the collar bone, possesses small mobility.

From what has been said, we would infer that should tuberculosis begin in a man's lungs, it would be likely to begin in the upper parts or apices, and such is the fact. In the case of women there is greater mobility at the apices, and it is possible that tuberculosis is as likely to begin elsewhere in the lungs of women.

Enough has been said to emphasize the fact that chest mobility plays a conspicuous part where tuberculosis of the lungs is concerned. How then, may chest mobility be secured? Mainly by proper exercises. There are many systems of exercises, but the purpose of them all is to develop the chest mobility and capacity, which combine to constitute the "breathing capacity."

Generally speaking, the chest of a man five feet four inches high should measure not under thirty-two inches at forced expiration, and not under thirty-four inches at forced inspiration; chest mobility two inches.

One of the best methods of developing the chest is that pursued by the military authorities of the various nations. This method can be better taught by observation than by reading, and the small pamphlet, published by the United States Army, may be readily obtained on request from the proper authorities. These exercises, however, must be taken in loose clothing, in a pure atmosphere, and some care should be exercised even in this mild climate to prevent the person exercising "contracting cold" at the close of the exercises.

Exercise in the open air, running, racing, foot or baseball, climbing hills or mountains, and rowing, are usually sufficient for those persons whose chests are normally formed, but there is an appropriate exercise which may correct almost every deformity that exists. But this subject is so large and so complicated that it cannot be properly treated in the small space that this article should occupy. Whatever exercise be taken, it is necessary that the air breathed be pure.

REQUISITE FOR THE UNIFORM EXAMINATIONS

The attention of principals and superintendents is called to the fact that in the uniform examinations which are to be given for intermediate grades the prescribed work for these grades which has appeared in the columns of THE PHILIPPINE TEACHER will be considered an essential part of the work to be covered. Each number has contained two or more articles which have been prescribed by the General Superintendent for use in the work of certain intermediate grades, and the theory upon which the paper is at present supplied gratis to all teachers depends largely upon this feature. These articles are to be considered as definite a part of the curriculum as the work contained in the regular texts. THE PHILIPPINE TEACHER is, in this sense, a schoolbook.

The following are the articles which have already been prescribed to be given in lecture form by the teacher:

Measures to Correct the Tendency to Tuberculosis, December and February numbers; Geological Excursions for Philippine Schools, December and February numbers; The Government and the Laws of the Philippine Islands, December, January, and February numbers; Philippine Forests, January; The Abacá Industry, February; Land Registration in the Philippines, February. The introductory note at the head of each of these articles or series indicates its place in the Intermediate Course.—Ed.

GEOLOGICAL EXCURSIONS FOR PHILIPPINE SCHOOLS

[Begun in December number]

SECOND EXCURSION IN DYNAMICAL GEOLOGY

HISTORY AND WORK OF RIVERS AND SMALLER STREAMS.—We have already learned that the work of the *Ocean* consists in *wearing away* the rocks and shore, in *grinding down* the materials thus obtained, in *carrying them away*, and finally in *dropping the sediments* when the transporting power of water has lost its force. In the same way, although in lesser degree, *Lakes* under influence of winds are at work; and we will now find that *Rivers and Smaller Streams* perform very much the same kind of work, although in a somewhat different way. A brief *history* of stream life must be outlined that the *work* may be better understood.

An excursion into the hills cannot fail to show something about running streams and the way in which they work. As is well known, rivers generally rise in the hills from direct rainfall and springs and are at first very small streams and frequently very irregular both in direction and in descent. As the tiny rivulets flow down the hillsides in their little channels they are joined by others and the stream, in almost every case, *increases* in volume and power. This process continuing, the stream finally becomes a *river*, or may be one of several streams to form a river. The river flows on with varying velocity and course until it finally (a) disappears underground, or (b), more often, empties (1) into another river, (2) a lake or other body of inland water, or (3) the sea. In the case (1) of emptying into another river the system is continued; in the case (2) of emptying into a lake it will in most cases be found that a stream of the same, or another name flows from the lake, and the river system is continued again, the lake forming merely an enlargement of the stream; in the case (3) of emptying into the sea the system is complete.

STREAM HISTORY.—Without going into a detailed account of the *life* of a running stream, something of an illustration of this river history may be observed in a clay bank during the season of rains. Owing to irregularities either (1) of slope or, (2) of composition, it will be found that in practically every case of surfaces forming sides of banks, hills, or mountains, or forming apparently level areas, water will show a tendency to gather and run off along certain lines. These are the lines of greatest slope, though differences in slope in the case of a fresh bank or on hill-sides may often be imperceptible to all but trained eyes.

It will be seen then, even upon a fresh clay bank and during the first rainfall upon it, that more water is running along these certain lines of slope than along others. A careful examination will show this to be practically true in every case. *Sheet* flow, or that of water in sheets, rather than along lines,

is rare indeed from the almost universal occurrence of the very irregularities mentioned above.

Now water falling upon the earth in the form of rain will, in almost every case, strike a surface with some slope, however slight, as a natural level surface in the absolute sense practically never occurs.

Water, being acted upon by the power of gravitation, it is known, *tends to seek its lowest level along the line of least resistance*. The line of greatest slope would naturally carry water downwards most swiftly and this is the line of least resistance in a general sense. Obstructions met by water flow may turn a stream aside to new directions or may merely raise the level of a stream, as in the case of dams, until the water itself forms a level above that of the ground and sufficiently above the level of the dam to form a new slope, whereupon it flows over its own level beyond the obstruction of the dam.

The greater the slope the more rapid is the velocity of the stream. This is a well-known law and a fact of common observation that need not be discussed at this time.

The greater the velocity the greater will be the volume carried in a given time, and the greater the volume on a given slope the greater the velocity will be. These principles are also illustrated by many observed facts and will be accepted for our purposes, without the necessity of their demonstration here.

Now bearing in mind the above laws, we will observe upon a surface, such as a clay bank, engaged in *draining* a given area:

1.—That the area is drained by water flowing along certain *lines of least resistance*, or *greatest slope*.

2.—That the water flows more *swiftly* along these lines than along other lines.

3.—That a greater *volume* is carried in a given time along these lines than along other lines.

We may later, in field excursions, see that running streams follow these general laws everywhere, and we may observe that their different aspects are due to such different *conditions* as the amount of rainfall, or other supply, the character and composition of the surfaces over which they flow, and the elevations that cause the differences of slope already discussed.

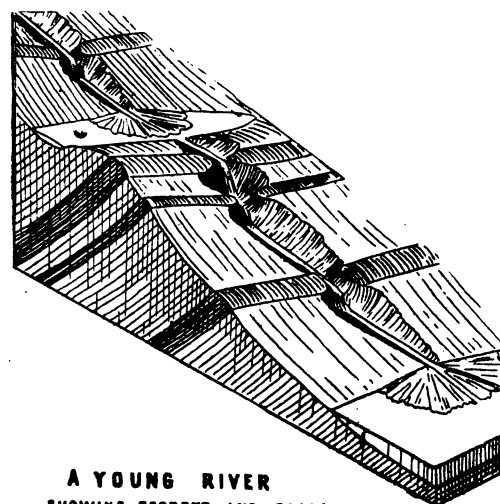
In the observation of a clay bank during, or after, a rain, we see the effects of water flow so clearly that we find less difficulty later in understanding the general effects as illustrated upon a larger scale upon mountain sides, broad plains or plateaus, or continental areas themselves.

In the first place the lines of greatest slope will receive the water and carry away the greatest amount at the maximum speed. The immediate effect of this will be to cause the greatest *wear* upon the lines of greatest flow. The next effect will be that the greatest *wear*, over a given surface, will cause the greatest *destruction* of that original surface, this destruction, or as it is more properly called, *denudation*, being shown

by a cutting deeper into the surface. This cutting will proceed by enlargement until a well-defined *gully* is formed; the *gully* will become a *ravine*; and upon a larger scale a *ravine* would become a gorge, cañon, or valley, depending somewhat upon the nature of the material cut away. These drainage channels *grow* therefore in size, not only in depth and breadth, but also in length, for a stream cuts backward as it flows. Thus in brief we have sketched the birth and various stages of growth of a stream bed and by following this figurative idea of stream history we may distinguish these stages as (1) *Birth*, (2) *Youth*, (3) *Maturity*, (4) *Old Age*, and (5) *Death*.

BIRTH AND DEATH.—As the very beginning and the very end of stream history are seldom observed, and of chief importance as far as our present purpose goes in rounding out the complete cycle, their discussion will not be attempted here. The more commonly observed stages of active existence, however, will be briefly described.

YOUTH.—A young river is in general one actively engaged in cutting a gorge or V-shaped channel, is generally somewhat swift owing to a more or less rapid fall, and as a rule it carries the greater part of the fine sediment, and a large portion of gravel and boulders, washed by its tributaries from the hills, along its course.



A YOUNG RIVER
SHOWING TORRENT AND FALLS
(W. M. DAVIS)

“While rivers are still young their course is often marked by rapids and falls, not yet filled up with sediment or drained away by the deepening of their outlet by the outflowing stream. The current of such rivers is irregular, being very fast at rapids and falls and almost wanting in lakes. As the river grows older both the falls and lakes disappear and the current becomes more uniform.” (W. M. Davis, *El. Phys. Geog.*)

The topographic features of young river systems are generally marked by more or less rugged hills with valleys having steep slopes and little or no “bottom,” or “graded” land. The rivers in Mindoro are seen to

be *young* rivers, as are many of those of the mountain country of these Islands. The Pagsanjan River with its beautiful gorge, rapids and falls, is a marked example of a river in youth.

The foregoing illustration, from Prof. W. M. Davis's *Elementary Physical Geography*, will illustrate the youthful stage of river growth. Hard rock, as shown in dark bands, wears less readily than the softer rock shown in light shading and this difference in rock composition is the most frequent cause of rapids and falls.

MATURE RIVERS.—The continued activity of a vigorous young river tends to destroy its lakes and falls, to soften its rugged valleys to graded slopes, to cut down side valleys so that their tributary streams will flow into the main stream without falls or rapids, to broaden valley floors, to meander freely over these and frequently to form deltas at the river mouth. *Mature* rivers thus are formed.

"Mature rivers accomplish the drainage of their basins and the carrying of rock waste to the sea in the most perfect manner. No undivided uplands remain from which a great part of the rainfall may be returned to the atmosphere by evaporation. The largest possible share of the rainfall is shed from the well-carved surface of the land and runs off in the streams with no delay in lakes or haste in falls. No hard rock ledges remain to be worn down in the valley floors. Everywhere the waste of the land is washed down the slopes to the streams and delivered in such quantity that the streams are kept working at their full capacity to transport the waste to the sea.

"The valleys of mature rivers are easily followed by roads and railroads; they are broad enough to contain cultivated fields as well as villages and cities * * *." (W. M. Davis.)

Mature rivers are not so common in the Philippines as young rivers with which most of our mountain streams may be classed. The upper valley of the Agno, in Benguet; the lower portion of the Bagbajan, on the west side of Mindoro; the Mariquina River in Rizal, and the Rio Grande de Pampanga of Luzon will serve to illustrate the mature stage of river growth.

OLD RIVERS.—An old river has developed by stages from a mature river when the hills retain only slight slopes, yielding little waste to the stream the texture of which waste is of fine grain, when there are low and poorly distinguished watersheds or divides and broad flood plains, when the stream meanders or winds through an almost level area, cutting away the bank on the outer edge of the curve where the current is more swift and building flats on the inner edge where the current weakens sufficiently to enable the water to drop the burden it bears, when the current in general is sluggish and the channel broad but not relatively deep. Old rivers are not common, although the lower portions of many streams, and all of some rivers, as the Pasig, show many of the characteristics of old streams.

GENERAL.—It will thus be seen (1) that *young* rivers flow with good current along narrow valleys and often through deep gorges or ravines, depositing little sediment, and affording difficult routes of travel and small valley areas for cultivation in that the stream most frequently washes its steep valley from one side to the other; (2) that *mature* rivers flow with a somewhat slower current, along wider valleys in which they deposit some detritus, often sufficient to afford beds for roads and railways and fertile areas for agricultural pursuits, and the founding of settlements of man, and that the hills drained by these rivers are of well-defined slopes terminating in peaks, rounded knobs or crests of divides, the topographic features of the region being therefore well-marked; and (3) that *old* rivers flow ordinarily with sluggish current winding through broad valleys and well-defined flood plains, affording most favorable opportunities for rail and wagon roads, extensive farming and other industrial operations of man, and sites for the largest cities with excellent communication with the outside world.

DEFINITIONS.—When rivers have washed down hill slopes and deposited their sediments over broad areas leaving just enough slope for the movement of water but not enough for further removal of material, under conditions *then present*, we have a *surface at grade*; if under continued rainfall and *varying* conditions this surface is further reduced in elevation until the material of old hills and following flood plains is uniformly spread over the lowest slope and level, the surface is said to be *base-leveled*, and further reduction can only take place by elevation of the land. Should geological agencies cause this elevation either at this final stage, or before, the rivers are said to be *revived* and may again pass through their stages of youth, maturity and old age. An elevated surface that has been first dissected by streams, then divided into hills, and finally reduced to a nearly uniform area of base-level results in a *peneplain* ("almost plain"), and many of the gently sloping areas near coast lines are *peneplains* thus formed.

By *divide*, is meant the line of separation between drainage systems or that highest ridge which literally divides the rainfall and sends part of it into one river or drainage system and part of it into another. A divide is therefore the highest crest line of ranges, passes and gaps. A *flood-plain* is any plain bordering a stream and covered by its waters during floods. By *relief* we mean in general the elevated portions, or irregularities of the earth's surface. When these are conspicuous we have a *well-marked relief*; when they are not we speak of *faint relief*. *Terrane* is a convenient word meaning any extent of ground or territory, or portion of land surface, with all its topographic features in mind. A *water-shed* is a *divide*.

Having briefly sketched the *history* of streams we will next observe the *work* they do.

H. D. M.

RECESS READINGS FOR FILIPINO TEACHERS

ROBIN HOOD

SIR WALTER SCOTT

[WALTER SCOTT, one of the greatest names in English literature, was born in Edinburgh, Scotland, in 1771. He was educated at the university of his native city and was admitted to the Scottish bar. Disliking the practice of law, he turned his attention to literary work. His splendid poems, "The Lay of the Last Minstrel," "Marmion," and "The Lady of the Lake," were received with unbounded enthusiasm. These were followed by "Rokeby" and "The Lord of the Isles." In 1814 he published "Waverley," the first one of that unsurpassed series of historical novels which has carried his name into the remotest quarters of the civilized world. He was made a baronet in 1820 by George IV. Crowned with the highest honors of literary fame, he died at Abbotsford, Scotland, in 1832.]

A target was placed at the upper end of the southern avenue which led to the lists. The contending archers took their station in turn, at the bottom of the southern access; the distance between that station and the mark allowing full distance for what was called a shot at rovers. The archers having previously determined by lot their order of precedence, were to shoot each three shafts in succession. The sports were regulated by an officer of inferior rank, termed the Provost of the Games; for the high rank of the marshals of the lists would have been held degraded had they condescended to superintend the sports of yeomanry.

One by one the archers, stepping forward, delivered their shafts yeomanlike and bravely. Of twenty-four arrows shot in succession, ten were fixed in the target, and the others ranged so near it, that, considering the distance of the mark, it was accounted good archery. Of the ten shafts which hit the target, two within the inner ring were shot by Hubert, a forester in the service of Malvoisin, who was accordingly pronounced victorious.

"Now, Locksley," said Prince John to the bold yeoman, with a bitter smile, "wilt thou try conclusions with Hubert, or wilt thou yield up bow, baldric, and quiver to the Provost of the sports?"

"Sith it be not better," said Locksley, "I am content to try my fortune, on condition that when I have shot two shafts at yonder mark of Hubert's, he shall be bound to shoot one at that which I shall propose."

"That is but fair," answered Prince John, "and it shall not be refused thee. If thou dost beat this braggart, Hubert, I will fill thy bugle with silver pennies for thee."

"A man can but do his best," answered Hubert; "but my grandsire drew a good longbow at Hastings, and I trust not to dishonor his memory."

The former target was now removed, and a fresh one of the same size placed in its room. Hubert, who, as victor in the first trial of skill, had the right to

shoot first, took his aim with great deliberation, long measuring the distance with his eye, while he held in his hand his bended bow, with the arrow placed on the string. At length he made a step forward, and, raising the bow at the full stretch of his left arm, till the center or grasping-place was nigh level with his face, he drew the bowstring to his ear. The arrow whistled through the air, and lighted within the inner ring of the target, but not exactly in the center.

"You have not allowed for the wind, Hubert," said his antagonist, bending his bow, "or that had been a better shot."

So saying, and without showing the least anxiety to pause upon his aim, Locksley stepped to the appointed station, and shot his arrow as carelessly in appearance as if he had not even looked at the mark. He was speaking almost at the instant that the shaft left the bowstring, yet it alighted in the target two inches nearer to the white spot which marked the center than that of Hubert.

"By the light of heaven!" said Prince John to Hubert, "an thou suffer that runagate knave to overcome thee, thou art worthy of the gallows!"

Hubert had but one set speech for all occasions. "An your highness were to hang me," he said, "a man can but do his best. Nevertheless, my grandsire drew a good bow——"

"The foul fiend on thy grandsire and all his generation!" interrupted John. "Shoot, knave, and shoot thy best, or it shall be worse for thee!"

Thus exhorted, Hubert resumed his place, and, not neglecting the caution which he had received from his adversary, he made the necessary allowance for a very light breath of wind, which had just arisen, and shot so successfully that his arrow lighted in the very center of the target.

"A Hubert! a Hubert!" shouted the populace, more interested in a known person than in a stranger. "In the clout!—in the clout!—a Hubert forever!"

"Thou canst not mend that shot, Locksley," said the prince, with an insulting smile.

"I will notch his shaft for him, however," replied Locksley. And letting fly his arrow with a little more precaution than before, it lighted right upon that of his competitor, which it split to shivers. The people who stood around were so astonished at his wonderful dexterity that they could not even give vent to their surprise in their usual clamor.

"This must be the devil, and no man of flesh and blood," whispered the yeomen to each other; "such archery was never seen since a bow was first bent in Britain!"

"And now," said Locksley, "I will crave your grace's permission to plant such a mark as is used in

the North Country, and welcome every brave yeoman to try a shot at it."

He then turned to leave the lists. "Let your guards attend me," he said, "if you please—I go but to cut a rod from the next willow-bush."

Prince John made a signal that some attendants should follow him in case of his escape; but the cry of "Shame! shame!" which burst from the multitude, induced him to alter his ungenerous purpose.

Locksley returned almost instantly with a willow wand about six feet in length, perfectly straight, and rather thicker than a man's thumb. He began to peel this with great composure, observing, at the same time, that to ask a good woodsman to shoot at a target so broad as had hitherto been used was to put shame upon his skill.

"For his own part," he said, "and in the land where he was bred, men would as soon take for their mark King Arthur's round table, which held sixty Knights around it. A child of seven years old," he said, "might hit yonder target with a headless shaft, but," added he, walking deliberately away to the other end of the lists, and sticking the willow wand upright in the ground, "he that hits that rod at five-score yards, I call him an archer fit to bear both bow and quiver before a king, and it were the stout King Richard himself!"

"My grandsire," said Hubert, "drew a good bow at the battle of Hastings, and never shot at such a mark in his life—neither will I. If this yeoman can cleave that rod, I give him the bucklers—or rather, I yield to the devil that is in his jerkin, and not to any human skill; a man can but do his best, and I will not shoot where I am sure to miss. I might as well shoot at the edge of our parson's whittle, or at a wheat-straw, or at a sunbeam, as at a twinkling white streak which I can hardly see."

"Cowardly dog!" said Prince John.—"Sirrah Locksley, do thou shoot; but, if thou hittest such a mark, I will say thou art the first man ever did so. Howe'er it be, thou shalt not crow over us with a mere show of superior skill."

"I will do my best," as Hubert says," answered Locksley; "no man can do more."

So saying, he again bent his bow, but on the present occasion looked with attention to his weapon, and changed the string, which he thought was no longer truly round, having been a little frayed by the two former shots. He then took his aim with some deliberation, and the multitude awaited the event in breathless silence. The archer vindicated their opinion of his skill: his arrow split the willow rod against which it was aimed. A jubilee of acclamations followed; and even Prince John, in admiration of Locksley's skill, lost for an instant his dislike to his person.

"These twenty nobles," he said, "which, with the bugle, thou hast fairly won, are thine own; we

will make them fifty, if thou wilt take livery and service with us as a yeoman of our body-guard, and be near to our person. For never did so strong a hand bend a bow, or so true an eye direct a shaft."

"Pardon me, noble Prince," said Locksley, "but I have vowed, that if ever I take service, it should be with your royal brother, King Richard. These twenty nobles I leave to Hubert, who has this day drawn as brave a bow as his grandsire did at Hastings. Had his modesty not refused the trial, he should have hit the wand as well as I."

Hubert shook his head as he received with reluctance the bounty of the stranger; and Locksley, anxious to escape further observation, mixed with the crowd and was seen no more.

—FROM "IVANHOE."

A WATER-LANE IN FLORIDA

SIDNEY LANIER

[Sidney Lanier, an American poet, and sometime lecturer on literature in Johns Hopkins University, was born in Georgia in 1842, and died in North Carolina, in 1881. His Centennial Ode, composed for the Centennial Exposition held in Philadelphia, in 1876, to celebrate the one hundredth year of American Independence, was received with universal praise. His "Boy's Froissart" and "Boy's King Arthur" are especially adapted for youthful readers.]

Presently we rounded the raft, abandoned the broad and garish highway of the St. John's, and turned off to the right into the narrow lane of the Ocklawaha, the sweetest water-lane in the world, a lane which runs for more than a hundred and fifty miles of pure delight betwixt hedgerows of oaks and cypresses and palms and bays and magnolias and mosses and manifold vine-growths, a lane clean to travel along for there is never a speck of dust in it save the blue dust and gold dust which the wind blows out of the flags and lilies, a lane which is as if a typical woodstroll had taken shape and as if God had turned into water and trees the recollection of some meditative ramble through the lonely seclusions of His own soul.

As we advanced up the stream our wee craft even seemed to emit her steam in more leisurely whiffs, as one puffs one's cigar in a contemplative walk through the forest. Dick, the pole-man—a man of marvelous fine functions when we shall presently come to the short, narrow curves—lay asleep on the guards, in great peril of rolling into the river over the three inches between his length and the edge; the people of the boat moved not, and spoke not; the white crane, the curlew, the limpkin, the heron, the water-turkey, were scarcely disturbed in their quiet avocations as we passed, and quickly succeeded in persuading themselves after each momentary excitement of our gliding by that we were really after all no monster, but only some daydream of a monster.

The stream, which in its broader stretches reflected the sky so perfectly that it seemed a ribbon of heav-

en bound in lovely doublings along the breast of the land, now began to narrow: the blue of heaven disappeared, and the green of the overleaning trees assumed its place.

The lucent current lost all semblance of water. It was simply a distillation of many-shaded foliages, smoothly sweeping along beneath us. It was green trees, fluent. One felt that a subtle amalgamation and mutual give-and-take had been effected between the natures of water and leaves. A certain sense of pelucidness seemed to breathe coolly out of the woods on either side of us; and the glassy dream of a forest over which we sailed appeared to send up exhalations of balms and odors and stimulant pungencies.

"Look at that snake in the water!" said a gentleman, as we sat on deck with the engineer, just up from his watch.

The engineer smiled. "Sir, it is a water-turkey," he said, gently.

The water-turkey is the most preposterous bird within the range of ornithology. He is not a bird, he is a neck, with such subordinate rights, members, appurtenances and hereditaments thereunto appertaining as seem necessary to that end. He has just enough stomach to arrange nourishment for his neck, just enough wings to fly painfully along with his neck, and just big enough legs to keep his neck from dragging on the ground; and his neck is light-colored, while the rest of him is black.

When he saw us he jumped up on a limb and stared. Then suddenly he dropped into the water, sank like a leaden ball out of sight, and made us think he was drowned—when presently the tip of his beak appeared, then the length of his neck lay along the surface of the water, and in this position, with his body submerged, he shot out his neck, drew it back, wriggled it, twisted it, twiddled it, and spirally poked it into the east, the west, the north, and the south, with a violence of involution and contortory energy that made one think in the same breath of corkscrews and of lightnings. But what nonsense! All that labor and perilous asphyxiation—for a beggarly sprat or a couple of inches of water-snake!

* * * * *

Some twenty miles from the mouth of the Ocklawaha, at the right-hand edge of the stream, is the handsomest residence in America. It belongs to a certain alligator of my acquaintance, a very honest and worthy saurian, of good repute.

A little cove of water, dark green under the overhanging leaves, placid, pellucid, curves round at the river-edge into the flags and lilies, with a curve just heart-breaking for the pure beauty of the flexure of it. This house of my saurian is divided into apartments—little subsidiary bays which are scalloped out by the lily-pads according to the sinuous fantasies of their growth. My saurian, when he desires to sleep, has but to lie down anywhere: he will find marvelous moss-

es for his mattress beneath him; his sheets will be white lily-petals; and the green disks of the lily-pads will straightway embroider themselves together above him for his coverlet.

He never quarrels with his cook, he is not the slave of a kitchen, and his one housemaid—the stream—forever sweeps his chambers clean. His conservatories there under the glass of that water are ever and without labor filled with the enchantments of strange under-water growths; his parks and his pleasure-grounds are bigger than any king's. Upon my saurian's house the winds have no power, the rains are only a new delight to him and the snows he will never see. Regarding fire, as he does not employ its slavery, so he does not fear its tyranny. Thus, all the elements are the friends of my saurian's house. While he sleeps he is being bathed. What glory to awake sweetened and freshened by the sole careless act of sleep!

Lastly, my saurian has unnumbered mansions, and can change his dwelling as no human house-holder may; it is but a flip of his tail, and lo! he is established in another place as good as the last, ready furnished to his liking.

For many miles together the Ocklawaha is a river without banks, though not less clearly defined as a stream for that reason. The swift, deep current meanders between tall lines of trees; beyond these, on each side, there is water also,—a thousand shallow rivulets lapsing past the bases of multitudes of trees. Along the immediate edges of the stream every tree-trunk, sapling, stump, or other projecting coign of vantage is wrapped about with a close-growing vine. At first, like an unending procession of nuns disposed along the aisle of a church these vine figures stand.

But presently, as one journeys, this nun-imagery fades out of one's mind, and a thousand other fancies float with ever-new vine-shapes into one's eyes. One sees repeated all the forms one has ever known, in grotesque juxtaposition. Look! here is a great troop of girls, with arms wreathed over their heads, dancing down into the water; * * * * * there the vines hang in loops, in pavilions, in columns, in arches, in caves, in pyramids, in harps and lyres, in globular mountain-ranges, in pagodas, domes, minarets, belfries, draperies, fish, dragons.

* * * * *

The edges of the stream are further defined by flowers and water-leaves. The tall, blue flags; the ineffable lilies sitting on their round lily-pads like white queens on green thrones; the tiny stars and long ribbons of the water-grasses; the pretty phalanxes of a species of "bonnet" which from a long stem that swings off down-stream along the surface sends up a hundred little graceful stemlets, each bearing a shield-like disk and holding it aloft as the antique soldiers held their bucklers to form the *testudo*, or tortoise, in attacking. All these border the river in infinite varieties.

And then, after this day of glory, came a night of glory. Down in these deep-shaded lanes it was dark indeed as the night drew on. The stream which had been all day a baldrick of beauty, sometimes blue and sometimes green, now became a black band of mystery. But presently a brilliant flame flares overhead: they have lighted the pine-kuots on top of the pilot-house.

Startled birds suddenly flutter into the light, and after an instant of illuminated flight melt into the darkness. From the perfect silence of these short flights one derives a certain sense of awe. Mystery appears to be about to utter herself in these suddenly illuminated forms, and then to change her mind and die back into mystery.

Now there is a mighty crack and crash: limbs and leaves scrape and scrub along the deck; a little bell tingles; we stop. In turning a short curve, or rather doubling, the boat has run her nose smack into the right bank, and a projecting stump has thrust itself sheer through the starboard side. Out, Dick! out, Henry! Dick and Henry shuffle forward to the bow, thrust forth their long white pole against a tree-trunk, strain and push and bend to the deck as if they were salaaming to the god of night and adversity, our bow slowly rounds into the stream, the wheel turns, and we puff quietly along.

THE HERITAGE

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL

The rich man's son inherits lands,
And piles of brick, and stone, and gold,
And he inherits soft white hands,
And tender flesh that fears the cold,
Nor dares to wear a garment old;
A heritage, it seems to me,
One scarce would wish to hold in fee.

What doth the poor man's son inherit?
Stout muscles and a sinewy heart,
A hardy frame, a hardier spirit;
King of two hands, he does his part
In every useful toil and art;
A heritage, it seems to me,
A king might wish to hold in fee.

What doth the poor man's son inherit?
A patience learned of being poor,
Courage, if sorrow come, to bear it,
A fellow-feeling that is sure
To make the outcast bless his door;
A heritage, it seems to me,
A king might wish to hold in fee.

O rich man's son! there is a toil
That with all others level stands;
Large charity doth never soil,
But only whiten, soft white hands—
This is the best crop from thy lands;
A heritage, it seems to me,
Worth being rich to hold in fee.

RULES OF BEHAVIOR

GEORGE WASHINGTON

[GEORGE WASHINGTON, whom all Americans revere as "the father of his country," was born in Westmoreland County, Virginia, on the 22nd of February, 1732, and died at Mount Vernon, Virginia, on the 14th of December, 1799. The whole world is familiar with his illustrious life and achievements. Although he is better known as a statesman and soldier than as an author, his State documents and letters, and his memorable "Farewell Address" on the occasion of his voluntary retirement to private life, are models of good writing. The accompanying maxims, composed in his youth, were prophetic of the singular thoughtfulness, wisdom, dignity, and uprightness which marked his character and life.]

Every action in company ought to be with some sign of respect to those present.

In the presence of others sing not to yourself with a humming noise, nor drum with your fingers or feet.

Sleep not when others speak; sit not when others stand; speak not when you should hold your peace; walk not when others stop.

Turn not your back to others, especially in speaking; jog not the table or desk on which another reads or writes; lean not on anyone.

Be no flatterer; neither play with anyone, that delights not to be played with.

Read no letters, books, or papers in company; but when there is a necessity for doing it, you must ask leave. Come not near the books or writings of anyone so as to read them, unless desired, nor give your opinion of them unasked; also, look not nigh when another is writing a letter.

Let your countenance be pleasant, but in serious matters somewhat grave.

Let your discourse with men of business be short and comprehensive.

In visiting the sick, do not presently play the physician, if you be not knowing therein.

Strive not with your superiors in argument, but always submit your judgment to others with modesty.

Undertake not to teach your equal in the art he himself professes; it savors of arrogance.

When a man does all he can, though it succeeds not well, blame not him that did it.

Mock not, nor jest at anything of importance; break no jests that are sharp-biting, and if you deliver anything witty, and pleasant, abstain from laughing thereat yourself.

Use no reproachful language against any one, neither curse, nor revile.

Be not hasty to believe flying reports to the disparagement of any.

In your apparel, be modest, and endeavor to accommodate nature, rather than to procure admiration; keep to the fashion of your equals, such as are civil and orderly with respect to times and places.

Play not the peacock, looking everywhere about you to see if you be well decked, and if your shoes fit well, if your stockings sit neatly, and clothes handsomely.

THE MISSION OF THE FILIPINO TEACHER

By CARMEN RALLOS

[The following essay was awarded first prize by the committee on Rizal Day exercises at Cebu. Miss Rallos is a teacher in the Central Primary School of Cebu. She has attended classes in English less than two years in all. The essay is printed without alteration of Miss Rallos' original copy.]

If a human being has been created to do something in this world, education is one of his most sacred duties. We know that everybody has an intellect which has to be developed so that we may distinguish right from wrong, good from bad, and just from unjust. If it is true that food gives strength to the body, education also develops the intellect. Without the light of the sun we could not live, and without education the intelligence of the man would be of no use.

So it is a man's duty to teach those who need education or to cultivate those intelligences in order that they may produce something and from these products we can get a good seed to plant and thus make our country progressive, because where there is progress the country is successful.

To be a teacher, one has a great office to fulfil, and a great responsibility to hold. His responsibility is not only on the present time but also on the future. When the parents send their boy or girl to school, it is because they trust on the teacher and put on his charge the welfare and the future of their children.

If this is true of all teachers in general, it is more of a Filipino one. We must think that if foreign people are interested to educate our own countrymen, what should we do, we who are native of the Philippines? Should we not make all our efforts to follow what they have begun? That we were late to learn, is not our fault, and there is nobody to blame for it; but now it is still time. The turn has come for us, the American teachers have already shown us the way, so we must do something to help them.

A Filipino teacher now, is looked upon with great respect which has never been done in past days. If we were told that the future of the children of today who will be the men of tomorrow, is on our hands, and depends upon our teaching, what should we do, or what would we not do, to make them successful? Now, we must realize that whatever be the future of the children depends upon us, which is a great responsibility; so we must do our best teaching as the advanced people do, by having perfect order in school and every idea to teach them to develop self thought.

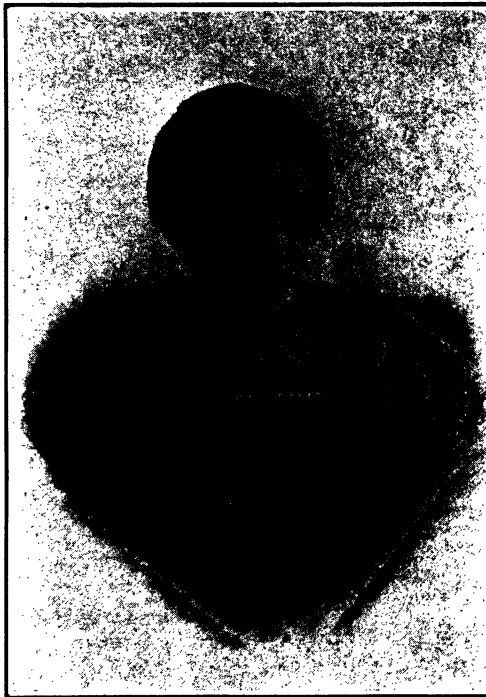
One of the most essential things in school which is also one of the teacher's duty, is the discipline in the school room and on the school grounds. Order must be kept in school and this must be practiced first by the teacher. We should try that the school be quiet, especially when a pupil is reciting the lesson. To show this to the pupils, the teacher must not talk very loud, but just enough to be heard by the pupils, because on the other way we disturb the teachers of the other classes. Children, as we know are very fond of talking and like to make noise, so a teacher should not be weary of these little troubles. We were once children also, and perhaps we might have given the same troubles to our teacher. The teacher can correct this by looking at the pupils with a dignified look, as a severe judge looks to a guilty person. The pupils must be each one on their own places, and should not be allowed to go from one place to another. We must not let the children go out of school except in case of great necessity because this causes disturbance to other pupils.

The teacher must be good to all the pupils whenever they are good, and be severe when they are bad and disobedient. Sometimes, however, we seem to be partial to one pupil more than to other, which is not becoming to a teacher. We know that human beings are far from perfect and we sometimes do what we should not, so it is not strange that we should be indulgent to this pupil more than to that one, but we can avoid this wrong feelings by doing a little sacrifice. The teacher should love all the pupils equally and be interested on teach-

ing them as if they were his own brothers and sisters. In case that a boy has done something wrong we must punish or scold not to make him suffer because we like him badly, but because of his wrong act.

To have a good, clear mind and energy it is necessary to have a good health. How can a boy study if he has not a good health? It is the duty of the teachers to have all the parts of the school very clean, because this avoids the children from sickness, and besides that, it accustoms them to have themselves and everything clean. The children should go to school with good, clean dresses although not a very pretty one, but must be clean and decent, as well as their faces and hands. I think that everybody like to have good appearance himself, for this fact we must be clean not only for ourselves but also for the other persons around us.

Boys and girls of the Philippines have a bad custom, that is the spitting on the floor. Perhaps, because of this bad custom many people here had died from consumption.



MISS CARMEN RALLOS

This is indeed not becoming, and it should be forbidden to the children. Teach them cleanliness in school and in their homes for this trains them to be educated and for its hygienic importance. It is best also in school to have the children sit up straight, to accustom them to be in a good looking position. This is good for the health as well as for the shape of the body. We should train the children to do this while they are young for their bones are still soft, because if we let them do what they please, the custom will become a habit, and when they grow older, it will be difficult, or too late to correct them.

Unfortunately, many of our boys use to be careless about the property of the government, that is, the books, desks, etc., and not only that, but they write on this words and obscene languages and on the doors of the building. This is indeed very shameful especially for a Filipino teacher as I am myself. A man is known by the way he does the things; if his works are well done, neat and in good order, this means that his thoughts and conscience are clear and tranquil. I think that many of them do this unconsciously, and it is the teacher's duty to teach them neatness on every thing and most of all, decency on thought and language. We ought to take care of the government's property as if it were our own, not only because it is our duty, but also in return of all the benefits that the government is doing to us.

When a teacher teaches school it does not mean that he is only to teach the first letters and to read and write, for he is also to teach them politeness or courtesy to the teachers and schoolmates. The teacher should be very polite even to the youngest pupil, so that the children too can imitate and treat with courtesy each other. Moreover, we must teach them to be kind to everybody and not say offensive words no matter who they are. If we want to be obeyed by the pupils, it is necessary to lead them the way so that they may follow.

There is nothing so general among the children as telling a lie. Perhaps it is sometimes because they do not know whether it is bad or not, or sometimes for fear of punishment; the point is that they are the ones who commit this fault frequently. Youth never thinks of danger. They do not know yet that being a liar while a boy, might bring a serious consequence when they grow to be men. To prevent this in school, the children should be taught to be truthful and to hate a lie. Many times, when the teacher asks many questions which children are ashamed to tell, it induces them to tell a lie. The teacher should investigate to find the truth whenever there is something wrong in school, and punish the children more for telling a lie than for the other fault.

One thing that must be observed especially by the Filipino children is the punctuality. The pupils must be at school just at the time indicated for the class to begin, and not a minute more. Many of the school duties must

be done first by the teacher in order that the pupils may do the same. The teacher ought to go early to school and must not stay long, in a class after the bell rings. This and many other things concerning on punctuality must be taught in school such as the punctuality on their compositions whenever they are asked to do, and cultivate the spirit of doing well whatever is to be done.

It is the mission of the teacher to cultivate the spirit of harmony among the pupils; teach them to consider each other as brothers and sisters. In school there should be no rank of pupils in regard to their position but to their knowledge. They should love and help each other whenever they have some troubles, and if they can not help it, they should go to the teacher to settle up the matter.

Modesty in the use of words, written and spoken and in the exposure of the body are essential for the pupils especially for the girls.

Even those who have never had any experience can see the importance of having regular attendance in school. When a boy comes to school irregularly, he misses the opportunity of learning well and many lessons that he can not have it repeated again for it will annoy the other pupils. A regular attendance encourages the pupils to learn more because the teacher can do his work without any trouble; while an irregular attendance draws back the pupil who did not attend regularly and the others also.

As the flowers attract the butterflies with their fragrance and bright color, the teacher also should make the school and even the teacher himself attractive to the children. The teacher's own moral character should act as an influence on the pupils and they should try to be the children's ideal. I was and still I am a pupil, and always I have considered my teachers as my ideals. I tried always to imitate their way of acting, speaking, and pleased them by doing everything they tell me to do. Having influence on the pupils they will do whatever we teach and thus we induce in them the virtue of obedience. Obedience itself, can produce a good conduct. Every man in the course of his life ought to know how to obey the parents, the laws, the authorities, and the teachers, and we cannot love and practice this virtue but in the infancy, and the infancy is what needs it the most.

If we expect good and correct work from the pupils, the teachers must be sure and well prepared on the lesson that they are going to teach. He must know what and to whom is he going to teach, and find the easiest way to be well understood and use plain words to explain in order that the pupils may learn well and quickly. The teacher must be careful also on their way of teaching and writing that they may not make any mistakes because inaccurate and careless work on the part of the teachers leads to the same kind of work on the part of the pupils.

The mission of the teacher has not finished yet; he has still many more duties besides those of the school. This is his duty in the community.

Perhaps, you will be tired of hearing or reading so many duties of a teacher; but this is true. If the teacher owes some duties to the pupils he owes more to the parents of these. To the parents we should be respectful and treat a poor worker politely as well as if he were talking to a wealthy and educated man, and tell about his boy or girl. Parents as we know think a great deal of their children, so they like to hear something from them. A teacher should not praise the pupil so much as to put them above the clouds especially when they are present; but should not talk also of their weakness. When a teacher demands the pupil to his parents, he must not speak with anger and must not be excited on the conversation because he is not like an accuser before the judge, but as a good friend who is sorry to reveal a fault or to give a punishment.

He is a good teacher who has an ideal relation to the parents, leading citizens, church and public officials, and pleases everybody without failing his duty. In order to do this, he must not interfere the affairs of the church, the government or any other out of his business.

There are two kinds of pride: one, is the sense of one's own worth, or lofty self-respect, and the other, is the pride of being loved or admired. The teacher must have the latter. He must act that the people may respect and consider him as one of the important men in the city and not as a simple one whom nobody pays attention. His intellectual, moral, and social standing will make him to be much respected in the community.

Many times and in many cases the parents of the pupils, have some complaints on account of their children. It is the teacher's mission to listen at all times to the complaints of all parents though they be the poorest men in the city.

The relation of the Filipino teacher to the American teachers should be like that of a child to his mother. To them we owe our knowledge which they gave us with earnest and zeal as a careful mother feeds her child. It is said that knowledge has no price and cannot be bought although with all the treasures in the world, but our knowledge we got for nothing; they have done us what we cannot repay, therefore if we worth something today, it is they who had given us that honor. In return to this favors we must be obedient to their plans and in case that they want to investigate something, we must be faithful in giving informations and tell the truth of what we know.

If teachers are looked upon as a model of education, harmony should exist among themselves.

Obedience to the laws, the rules of school, faithfulness whenever a promise is given, and punctuality are the things required to be a good teacher. Therefore, to be a teacher is an honorable office, although it is a hard task, but I think that a good citizen who loves his country would not mind to do even the hardest work for the sake and benefit of his country and countrymen.

THE ABACÁ INDUSTRY

By H. T. EDWARDS, Fiber Expert of the Bureau of Agriculture

[An Address delivered before the Agricultural Society of the Insular Normal School, Manila, January 16th, 1905. This article is prescribed by the General Superintendent for use in connection with the work in agriculture in Grade V.]

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:

Before we take up the subject of the evening, "The Abacá Industry," it may be well for us to consider for a few moments just what is the object of this Agricultural Society. You have doubtless discovered before now that it is a difficult matter to learn from books how to become good farmers. In planting and cultivating your experimental gardens, you have probably found out that many of the rules of the class room have to be continually changed and adjusted to meet the conditions which you find out of doors. In this same way it is quite impossible to make any one set of rules that you can always follow when you leave your gardens here in Manila and take up the larger and more difficult work of cultivating your abacá plantations in the provinces.

Some of you will go to Albay, some to Sorsogon, some to Leyte. You will have different varieties of abacá to plant, different kinds of soil to cultivate, different conditions of climate to work with. Under these varying circumstances it will be necessary for each one of you to work out your own special plan and method of plantation management. It seems to me, therefore, that the essential object of this Society is, not so much that you may learn just how to plant and cultivate beans, and bananas, and abacá, but rather, that you may learn how to think clearly about these matters, and that you may experiment intelligently with them in the garden and on the plantation. It is this thinking and experimenting which, in the end, makes the successful farmer.

Tonight we will consider briefly the present methods of cultivating and of extracting abacá, not only that we may learn how we ought to do this work, but, also, that we may learn how we ought *not* to do it. In these old methods and customs, which have been followed for many years, you will find much that is good, and considerable that is bad. You will not be able to go out from school and teach old and experienced abacá planters an entirely new way of conducting their business. You should be able, however, to see and understand why certain of the methods, now in use, are undesirable; and, understanding why these methods are undesirable, you should be able to gradually improve them. If you find that the abacá on your father's plantation is planted six feet apart, ask him to plant one hectare eight feet apart, and another ten feet apart, and then compare the results of these three methods. If all of your neighbors are using serrated stripping knives, and are producing coarse, brown fiber, go out into the field yourself and get a stripping knife with a smooth edge; strip some abacá and see what quality of fiber you get. In this way you will become a thinker and an experimenter your-

(Continued on page 24)

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ADVERTISING RATES UPON APPLICATION

THE PHILIPPINE TEACHER is supplied to every teacher in the Islands, American or Filipino. Each number contains material which is prescribed by the General Superintendent as a regular part of the school work.

It is also sent gratuitously to every municipal presidente, every justice of the peace, and all civil officials.

*Address all communications to John G. Coulter,
Editor of "The Philippine Teacher," Box 971,
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The March number of THE PHILIPPINE TEACHER will be placed in the post-office at Manila about the twenty-fifth of the month. Teachers who are leaving their stations for the long vacation and would prefer to have the March number held for them at the office of the General Superintendent or sent to a new address may make such arrangement by sending a postal to the editor. It is thought that in some cases mailed copies may fail to make connection before the vacation has begun.

A SHIP FOR THE NAUTICAL SCHOOL

The United States Navy has turned over to the Philippines Government for the use of the Nautical School the U. S. S. *Ranger*. She is probably already on her way from Mare Island to Manila. It is hoped that school can be opened aboard her by the middle of June.

The *Ranger* is by no means to be a mere training-ship which will lie at anchor. She is equipped for deep-sea as well as coastwise navigation and plenty of cruising and practical work at sea is in store for the young sailors who will be in Mr. Jenkins' charge.

Entrance to the Nautical School is in no way limited to residents of Manila and the immediate vicinity. It is open to the limit of accommodation to young men anywhere in the Islands who have satisfactorily completed the Intermediate Course and who are able to pass a rigid physical examination. Accommodations for thirty students will be provided on the *Ranger*. Should the number of successful applicants

be greater than thirty, selections will be made on the basis of physical qualifications and recommendations for character.

Principals and division superintendents are urged to bring this matter to the attention of their prospective graduates from the intermediate course who seem to have the requisite qualifications. It is desired that the young men who make up the first class on board the *Ranger* shall fairly represent the entire Islands, and that the boy from a remote province shall have as good a chance for a berth as the boy in Manila.

A CREDITABLE DOCUMENT

The following letter and accompanying document indicate a spirit on the part of the citizens of Quilbay which is worthy of imitation. With many such barrios in the Islands, the work of the Bureau will go forward by leaps and bounds:

NURVA CÁCERES, P. I., Feb. 20, 1905.

THE GENERAL SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION, Manila.

SIR:

On account of a lack of funds few of the towns of this province are able to adequately support barrio schools. Many of the barrios have voluntarily offered to pay the salary of a teacher if the Bureau of Education would furnish the supplies. Several such schools have been established.

I enclose a copy of an agreement freely translated, entered into by the citizens of Quilbay, barrio of Ragay. This contract was the result of a visit of Mr. Antonio Genio, supervising teacher of the district of Ragay, and the credit is due to him and the people of the barrio. I consider this a very creditable document. The governor has sent copies to various barrios that wish to establish schools under these conditions.

Very respectfully,

FRANK L. CRONE,

Acting Division Superintendent.

BARRIO OF QUILBAY, THIRD DISTRICT OF RAGAY,

AMBOS CAMARINES, Dec. 31, 1904.

I, Flaviano Ruy, consejal of said district, and the citizens of the same have entered into this agreement. In order that a primary school may be established in this barrio, the pupils of both sexes shall pay a contribution of twenty cents a month for the payment of the salary of the teacher. In order that the payment of the salary may be guaranteed we have chosen Sres. Macario Velus, Anastasio Collantes, Isidro Ager and Luis Ruy as guarantors for the same and one of them, Sr. Anastasio Collantes, as collector and depository of said money, who shall pay the salary mentioned above and shall collect from the other guarantors in case the contribution fall short of the required amount. If the contribution is in excess of the amount required to pay the teacher's salary, the surplus shall be kept as a fund to meet extraordinary expenses. A record of all collections and disbursements must be kept by the depository and shall be examined and approved monthly by all the guarantors under the direction of the consejal or lieutenant.

This agreement shall be made in triplicate, one being sent to the Division Superintendent, one to the Municipal President and the other remaining in charge of the depository. One copy of the monthly account shall be sent the supervising teacher of the Ragay district at the end of each month.

Signed and sealed the place and date above mentioned.

Signatures of fifteen citizens follow.

OFFICIAL CIRCULARS

BUREAU OF EDUCATION

No. 10, s. 1905.

MANILA, February 7, 1905.

GOVERNMENT SCHOLARSHIP EXAMINATIONS

TO DIVISION SUPERINTENDENTS:

You are hereby notified that an examination for government scholarships in the United States will be held throughout the Archipelago on March 24 and 25, 1905.

The subjects will be the same as those given in the last examination, and approximately the same grade of work will be covered. The rules governing the scholarship examinations of last April will continue in force. The examination will be given in only one town for the entire Province. Questions will be sent later, and Civil Service regulations relative to the handling of such questions will be followed exactly. Notices should at once be posted in every municipality in your Division and the greatest publicity given to this announcement.

DAVID P. BARROWS,

General Superintendent

BUREAU OF EDUCATION

No. 12, s. 1905.

MANILA, P. I., February 13, 1905.

PERMANENT SCHOOL MUSEUM

TO DIVISION SUPERINTENDENTS:

It is the desire of the General Superintendent to establish in Manila, prior to the beginning of the summer vacation, an exhibit of school work from the various divisions. A large space has been set aside in one of the buildings of the Philippine Normal School for this purpose. It is planned to make this exhibit of school work the nucleus of a pedagogical museum which will be a permanent feature of the Normal School. It is believed that the collection will be of great interest and value to all teachers. Creditable and representative school exhibits can be made to excellent advantage at this time, near the close of a successful school year. The collecting of material and the handling of necessary correspondence has been placed in the hands of Mr. A. R. Hager, who has just returned from the United States, where he has been in charge of the Philippine Educational Exhibit at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition.

Exhibits showing the industrial work of pupils, either in school or out, are particularly desired. The interest of an exhibit is much increased by showing with either models or drawings of the apparatus used in the various steps in an operation, such as the making of a basket or hat, or the weaving of a piece of cloth from plant to finished product.

Photographs of the many new school buildings which have been constructed during recent months will be valuable material for exhibit. The photographs submitted should be of good size. If it is impossible to send large pictures, send negatives carefully packed, and they will be returned, if desired, after enlargements have been made.

Written work, unless it shows some interesting phase of local history or folk-lore or some original method of instruction is not particularly desired. Material that will illustrate new ideas in teaching or organization is especially wanted. Original methods along certain lines are probably employed in every school division in the Archipelago. Such of these features as are capable of illustration should have place in the exhibit.

The Bureau of Education has the promise of a considerable amount of material which was displayed in the Education Building of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. When this arrives from the United States it will form a part of the collection for our pedagogical museum. Loan exhibits from Philippine sources are solicited. These will receive the best of care and may be removed at any time by the owners. It is

probable that some of the materials collected from the Philippine schools during the next two months will be sent to the Lewis and Clark Exposition, which is to open in June, 1905, in Portland, Oregon.

Data of industrial exhibits should be very complete, including native names (with name of dialect), Spanish or American names, name of pupil or pupils making, name of school, time required in making, cost of materials, and any other information that will add to the interest and answer questions. You will receive within a few days copies of labels on which to note the data regarding exhibits. Have them filled in with as complete and accurate information as possible. Please hold material until you receive these labels. It is very essential, however, that collections be made promptly in order that the exhibit in Manila shall be in as complete form as possible at the opening of the vacation period.

Inquiries and suggestions are solicited and may be addressed either to the General Superintendent or to Mr. A. R. Hager, care of this Bureau.

FRANK R. WHITE,

Acting General Superintendent.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION

No. 13, s. 1905.

MANILA, P. I., February 13, 1905.

MAKING UP TIME LOST THROUGH ILLNESS

TO DIVISION SUPERINTENDENTS:

It has been decided to provide vacation work at the close of the present school year in making up time lost through illness for only such teachers as have at least two weeks' absence charged against them. This ruling is made in view of the fact that the services of a teacher upon assignment to extra duty for a few days only of the vacation period can be of but very slight educational value. No recommendations of such assignment should be forwarded to the General Superintendent for approval unless the time to be made up aggregates two weeks or more. Teachers affected by this decision should be advised at once.

As stated in Circular No. 8 from this office, vacation assignment can be made only with the explicit sanction of the Secretary of Public Instruction. Cases requiring such action should be immediately brought to the attention of the General Superintendent in order that difficulties may not arise through the delays necessarily attendant upon the official transmission of papers. Without exception definite statement must be submitted indicating the nature of the work to which it is purposed to assign the teachers.

FRANK R. WHITE,

Acting General Superintendent.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION

No. 14, s. 1905.

MANILA, P. I., February 13, 1905.

INCREASE OF LOCAL SCHOOL FUNDS

TO DIVISION SUPERINTENDENTS:

Reports from a number of provinces indicate that many municipalities have acted upon the suggestion of the Division Superintendents in increasing the annual local appropriation for schools from $\frac{1}{4}$ of one per cent to $\frac{3}{8}$ and, in some cases, to $\frac{1}{2}$ of one per cent upon the assessed property valuation. Attention is invited to the inclosed form which is used in various towns of the Province of Union. It is advisable that this additional appropriation be provided for in formal "Act of Council" in order to make sure that the extra money be given to schools instead of loaned, and included in the yearly estimate of expenses. Pursuant to opinion of the Attorney General of the Philippine Islands, municipal councils are free to exercise their discretion in so appropriating, to the use of the schools, funds derived from the land tax.

In all cases where possible it is of course desirable to have the land tax for the calendar year carry the schools through to the end of the school year, that is, the land tax collected

for 1904 should pay school expenses through to the beginning of the school year 1905-06. Where this can be brought about, a fairly definite statement of the amount of money available for each school year can be prepared at the beginning of the school year. It is understood that there are difficulties in the way of the realization of this condition owing to revision of assessments and the delays in collecting the land tax. The accompanying blank will reach division superintendents too late to be of service this year, but this form or some modification of it will be found of value in preparing next year's estimates.

FRANK R. WHITE,
Acting General Superintendent.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION

No. 16, s. 1905.

MANILA, P. I., February 18, 1905.

EXAMINATIONS FOR THE COMPLETION OF PRIMARY AND INTERMEDIATE COURSES

TO DIVISION SUPERINTENDENTS:

Examination questions are sent you by this mail as separate sealed enclosures. These questions are of two grades, plainly marked, one for the completion of the primary course, and the other for the completion of the intermediate course. The examinations are to be held in all divisions March 29 and 30, 1905, unless otherwise provided in individual cases by the General Superintendent.

The selection of places of the examinations, and persons by whom they are to be conducted, is left to the division superintendents, but the following rules should govern:

The subject matter of the test shall be known prior to the examination only by the division superintendent and an assistant whom he may appoint to help him in the remailing of the questions. Questions covering each half-day of examination should be sealed in the office of the division superintendent and sent to the teacher who is to conduct the examination, with an accompanying letter having plain instructions that the envelope containing the questions is not to be unsealed until the candidates are assembled in a room prepared for the examination. These instructions should also be plainly written on the outside of the envelope. In so far as may be possible, the regulations outlined in Section 8 of the Civil Service Manual of Information should be followed. Upon the completion of the test the papers are to be read and marked by the teacher or principal giving the examination; he will then issue for each successful candidate a certificate of eligibility for promotion duly filled out and signed. The examination papers, accompanied by the signed certificates are then to be forwarded to the division superintendent for review and signature. The pupil may be admitted to a higher course only in case his certificate of promotion receives the signature of the division superintendent.

An average of seventy per cent (70%), is required for promotion. The signature of teacher or principal and superintendent on the certificate also signify that in their belief the pupil is morally and physically fit for admission to the next higher course and that his deportment has been such as to warrant his promotion.

If the papers are so numerous as to entail in their review an impracticable amount of work on the division superintendent, he may call to his assistance a committee of teachers, who wish to make up previous absences. Early request should be submitted that such service be credited to these teachers as vacation work, and allowed to offset absences due to illness. Discretion should be used with reference to permitting pupils to compete in the examinations. It is not the intention that pupils be indiscriminately admitted. Only those who have completed the work of the courses outlined, and are in the opinion of their teachers fitted to go on to the higher work, should be allowed to enter. The passing of the examination for completion of the intermediate course will hereafter be required for admission to the Philippine Nautical School.

As soon as the examinations are completed, a statement should be sent to this office giving the name, age, pueblo,

and rating, together with the number of months actually under American instruction, of each successful candidate.

FRANK R. WHITE,
Acting General Superintendent.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION

No. 18, s. 1905.

MANILA, P. I., February 23, 1905.

ABSENCE FOR OBTAINING SUPPLIES

TO DIVISION SUPERINTENDENTS:

Pursuant to a decision of the Honorable the Secretary of Public Instruction, teachers may, under exceptional circumstances, be permitted to absent themselves from their stations in order to obtain commissary supplies. The Division Superintendent should make it known that all absences for this reason will be carefully scrutinized, and if it does not appear that every recourse was exhausted in efforts to obtain supplies on the teachers' own time, such absences will be charged against them and salary deducted therefor. All cases of absence of this nature should be covered by Civil Service Form No. 55 and submitted to this office for decision.

FRANK R. WHITE,
Acting General Superintendent.

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THE EDUCATIONAL EXHIBIT AT THE PHILIPPINE EXPOSITION

By ALBERT R. HAGER, Late Chief of the Department of Education of the Philippine Exposition Board.

The Louisiana Purchase Exposition has passed into history as the greatest of all World's Fairs.

President Francis said that the Philippine Exposition was the "overshadowing feature" at St. Louis, and in this statement I believe he voices the sentiment of a majority of the visitors. At any rate, the people of the Philippine Islands have reason to be proud of their contribution, which was not merely an "exhibit" but really an "exposition" in itself. Occupying forty-seven acres of ground and housed in one hundred and thirty buildings, with her resources and possibilities fairly and realistically shown to the people of the world, the result of the exhibit must surely be a better understanding of Philippine conditions by every visitor. In all probability there will never be another such opportunity for a thorough advertisement of the Insular resources, nor another period in their history when it would be of equal benefit.

The arrangement of the Philippine grounds left little to be desired. Surrounding the central plaza were four large exhibit buildings, representing the Manila Cathedral, the Science Hall of the Manila Normal School, the Ayuntamiento, and a typical Manila house of the better class. In these were the exhibits of Education, Commerce and Manufactures, Fine and Liberal Arts, and Artistic Crafts.

At the center of the plaza was a statue of Juan Sebastian el Cano, surmounting a fountain, while the lawn was relieved by beds of bright foliage and flowering plants.

Just outside this quadrangle were two large nipa buildings that housed the exhibits of Agriculture and Forestry, a small nipa "modelschool" and a building of frame and staff that held the Ethnological exhibit. Somewhat further from the center were the Mines and the Fish and Game buildings, while at the main entrance to the grounds was a very fair representation of the Walled City, through which visitors passed after crossing the Bridge of Spain.

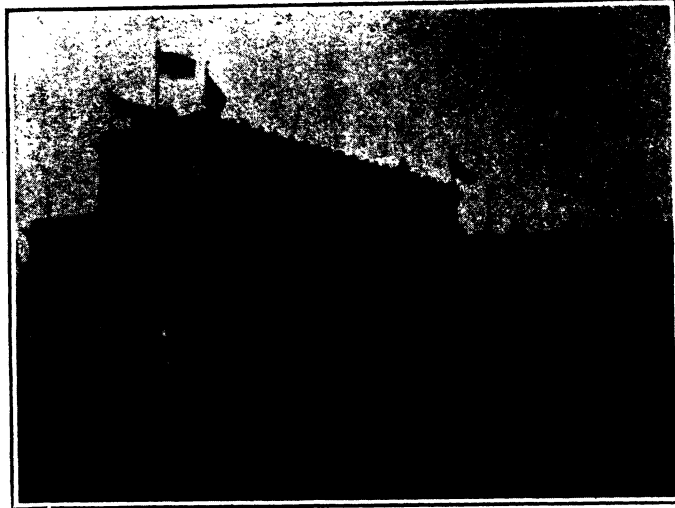
Still further from the center of the grounds were the Visayan, Negrito, Igorot, Bagobo, and the two Moro villages, while back of the Ayuntamiento lay the parade ground and cuartel of the Constabulary and the model camp and parade ground of the Scouts. The Philippine Weather Bureau building adjoined the large relief map of the Philippines. This map was over a hundred feet in length, plainly showing the curvature of the earth and the altitude of the mountains, and was surrounded by

a gallery for visitors. This exhibit included two high iron towers, bearing electric storm detectors, which are now on their way to Manila. The map and apparatus of the bureau, particularly the seismographs, were of great interest to visitors.

Lectures on the Philippines, illustrated by colored lantern slides, were given continuously in the building of the photograph concession, where photographs taken in the Islands and on the Exposition grounds were on sale. The curious were furnished amusement in an attractive little theater building (a concession) by the Visayan "Midgets." Besides the foregoing there were a number of restaurants, at the largest of which, "Cafe Luzon," you might dine and enjoy the music of the Constabulary Band in an adjoining pavilion.

A World's Fair is as truly an educational institution as is a university, and there is such a wealth of available information that the visitor can carry away with him as much as he is capable of assimilating.

The Filipino students, who visited the exposition for a month with Mr. Sutherland, had the opportunity of their lives, and most of them made good use of it. In addition to seeing the exhibits of all countries they were able to give information regarding their own, and they took turns acting as guides in the different buildings on the Philippine grounds. There were, in all, about thirteen hundred Filipinos at St. Louis, including



THE PHILIPPINE EDUCATIONAL BUILDING

the students, the commissioners, the military organizations, the people of the villages, etc. Doubtless they all profited by the experience, as it was the first sight of the Occident for practically all of them.

Education was recognized by the Louisiana Purchase Exposition as by no previous World's Fair. A special building, equal to any of the other exhibit palaces in beauty and location, was devoted to education; and no exhibits were more systematically or attractively arranged. The Philippine Exposition Board followed this example by setting aside a special building for their 8,000 educational exhibits, besides providing a typical nipa and bamboo building for a model school. The model of the Manila Cathedral was the Philippine Educational Building, and it was the largest and handsomest exhibit building on the Philippine grounds. The exhibits were divided into provinces—the primary and secondary work of Laguna

Province, for example, was shown in one of the many alcoves into which the building was divided.

By far the largest part of the exhibits were of primary work from provincial schools. These consisted of both written papers on the various subjects and specimens of industrial work. All of the visiting teachers of manual training took a lively interest in this handwork. One of the leading teachers of manual training said, "Why, this is what we are working *toward* in American schools." The schools in the Philippines have a wealth of material to use in school handwork, and the buri, nito, pandan, and abacá fibers, which are so common here, would be highly prized in American schools.

The handwork of the Philippine schools should be done, as far as possible, with the native materials, such as the fibers named and bamboo. By this the writer does not mean that native tools should be used, for methods ought by all means to be improved, but the child ought to study, understand, and use the materials of his environment.

A number of the private schools of the Islands were represented by exhibits and some of these were excellent, though very little work in English was shown by any of them. Besides the primary work, there were fine exhibits from provincial and private secondary schools, and special exhibits from the normal, nautical, and trade schools.

When the writer left Manila, in December, 1903, he took with him to St. Louis two Filipino assistants, Miss Pilar Zamora, a teacher in the Philippine Normal School, and Mr. Antonio Estadillo, a teacher in the Sta. Cruz primary school of Manila. The voyage was pleasant, both by sea and land, and afforded an opportunity to see something of China and Japan as well as the western and central parts of the United States. A few weeks after reaching St. Louis, in February, 1904, Mr. Estadillo contracted a cold which rapidly developed into pneumonia, and the readers of this paper know of his sad death. Mr. Estadillo was an exceptionally earnest and conscientious man and had planned to benefit greatly by his year's residence in America. By his death the Bureau lost a valuable teacher whose work was appreciated.

Miss Zamora, who remained until the close of the exposition, rendered valuable assistance in the installation and cataloguing of exhibits, but her principal work at St. Louis was in her position as Superintendent of the Model School. The Model School was in session every day except Monday, a day that Miss Zamora devoted to visiting the St. Louis schools when they were in session.

From 9 to 10:30 there was a class of twenty-one Visayan boys and girls from five to twenty years of age. These were divided into two sections. They studied the common branches, all in English, just as they would in any provincial school in the Islands. Posted in the classroom was a large notice for the information of visitors, as follows:

9 to 10.30 a. m.

These two classes of Visayans are typical of 95% of the Philippine Government schools. Members of the advanced class have attended American schools, and several have formerly attended Spanish schools.

The books used in the Model School had all been especially written for use in the Philippines, and these books

and all other school supplies were donated by the publishers or manufacturers. The size of the audience at every session, rain or shine, was only limited by the size of the building. The number of visitors varied from one to two thousand every day. Besides the children in the Visayan class there were a number of children in the villages of the Non-Christian tribes. A class was made up from them, which met each morning at 10:30. This class included fifteen Igorot, three Tinguianes, six Negritos, two Bagobos, and three Moros. Miss Za-

mora was rather doubtful at first with regard to this class, but after trying the experiment for a few weeks she found the work most interesting. The Igorot and Tinguian children led the rest of the class easily and the progress of these beginners, in the short period of the Exposition, was a compliment not only to their teacher but to their own ability. An explanatory notice to visitors was posted in the schoolroom during sessions of this class, as follows:

10.30 to 11.30 a. m.

This experimental class is not at all typical of any school in the Philippines. The Moro, Igorot, and Negrito tribes from which these people come are so remote from one another that they meet here for the first time. Less than one-tenth of one per cent of these people attend school in the Philippines.



MISS ZAMORA WITH HER VISAYAN CLASS

During the visit of the Honorary Commissioners at St. Louis the juries of awards were formed and the work of passing upon the exhibits was begun. Schools that made exhibits will soon receive lists of these awards from St. Louis. The highest award was the Grand Prize, and of these the educational exhibits received eight. One was awarded to the Department of Public Instruction and one to the Bureau of Education for the educational exhibit as a whole, one to the Model School, one to the University of Santo Tomas, one to the Philippine Normal School, one to the Laguna High School, one to the Liceo de Manila, and one to the Philippine Nautical School. Gold medals were awarded to seventeen primary schools, eight secondary schools, the Moro Industrial School, the Manila Medical Society, one correspondence school, one author. Silver medals were awarded to thirty-seven primary schools, four kindergartens, nine secondary schools, two special schools, nineteen authors and publishers. In addition, one hundred and ten bronze medals and three hundred and twenty-three diplomas of honorable mention were awarded to the educational exhibits. A complete list of these awards will be published in the next issue of *THE PHILIPPINE TEACHER*. The group jury of awards in the educational department were Mr. Tomas del Rosario, Mr. Leoncio G. Liguete, Mr. José de Loyzaga, Dr. Manuel Gomez, Miss Zamora, and the writer.

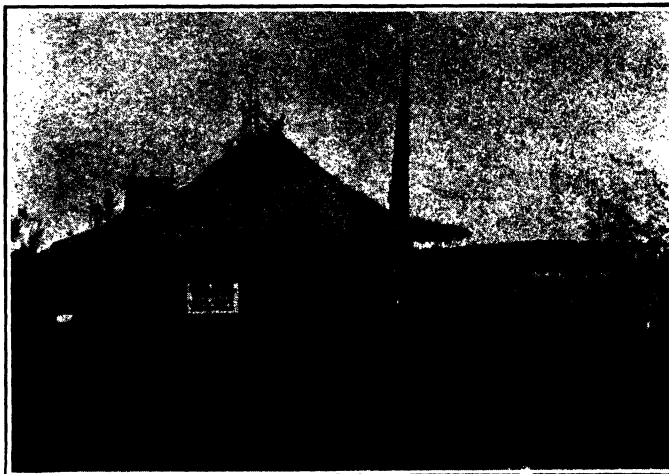
On the formal opening day of the Philippine Exposition the educational building was visited by Secretary of War William H. Taft, who expressed himself as much pleased with the good work shown. Later, in November, President Roosevelt showed the keenest interest in the work of the schools. He asked many questions regarding the extent of the work and the training of teachers. He complimented Miss Zamora on the work of the Model School, a session of which he attended. Other visitors to the educational exhibit were Cardinal Satolli, Colonel Edwards, Chief of the Bureau of Insular Affairs; Mr. Cameron Forbes, Dr. Cook, President of the National Educational Association; all of the State and Foreign Commissioners of Education; many presidents and professors of universities and colleges, and thousands of American teachers. To say that ninety-nine per cent of the World's Fair visitors saw the Philippine Exposition is a conservative estimate, and the great majority of these visited the educational exhibit. The number of visitors at the Fair was between fifteen and twenty million, and the cost of the exhibit to the Philippine Government was about one million six hundred thousand pesos, so at a rough estimate

we may say that it cost the Government half a peseta to show the exhibits to each visitor. Besides this the Exposition resulted in the publication of enormous quantities of information anent the Philippines, accurate in the main, in daily papers and magazines of America. The Exposition Board had many circulars and brochures printed and distributed to visitors, including one leaflet on education in the Islands. Before the opening of the Fair the Philippine Board mailed an illustrated pamphlet on the Philippine schools and the Exhibit to about eighty-four thousand public school teachers within a radius of three hundred miles of St. Louis. These they read and explained to their classes, the direct object of this being to advertise the Philippine Exposition. This resulted, of course, in an added knowledge of the Islands being received by many who did not visit the Fair.

At the annual meeting of the National Educational Association at St. Louis, in June, educational work in the Philippines was represented by three addresses. One by

Dr. Bryan, former General Superintendent, was delivered before the general session. One was delivered by Miss Zamora in the kindergarten section, and one by the writer in the joint session of kindergarten and primary sections. Miss Zamora also made an address on Philippine education at the Chautauqua assembly in New York State later in the summer.

Practically all of the school exhibits, except loans for which receipts were given, were left in America



THE MODEL SCHOOL.

in schools and pedagogic museums. Some were sent to Portland, Oregon, to be shown at the Lewis and Clark Exposition, which opens next June. Hundreds of letters written by Filipino pupils for distribution to American boys and girls formed a feature of the educational exhibit. These were distributed to visiting teachers from all parts of the United States for their pupils. Each of these teachers agreed to be personally responsible for the answering of the letters, and a register showing to whom letters had been given was kept in the register of visiting teachers. At the close of the Fair this register contained over thirteen thousand names of teachers. A few letters were given to teachers from Canadian, British and other English-speaking schools, and the few remaining were turned over to the Philadelphia Museum for distribution.

In return for the exhibits given to schools the writer obtained in exchange a number of exhibits shown at St. Louis by some of the best schools in America. It is proposed that these exhibits, soon to arrive from America, will form the nucleus of a pedagogic museum.

THE ABACA INDUSTRY

(Continued from page 17)

self. By this sort of work you will be continually doing something toward building up and strengthening this great abacá industry.

There are two quite distinct reasons why each one of us should know something about the abacá plant and abacá fiber. First, because this is by far the most important plant and product of the Philippine Islands. We are all more or less familiar with the different Philippine products which are exported from Manila, and Cebu, and Iloilo to all parts of the world. Laguna, Tayabas, and Romblon send us great quantities of copra; Negros, Panay, and Bulacan, sugar; Cagayan and Isabela, tobacco; and Ilocos, maguey and indigo. All of these products are of importance, and yet when we take them all together their total value is less

should be able to produce it. It is quite as necessary that we should understand the condition of the markets in the United States and Great Britain as it is that we should understand the conditions on our plantations. There is a great work to be done throughout the Philippine Islands in improving the quality of our abacá fiber, and this is a work in which each one of us can do our part. When you go out into the provinces remember this matter, and when you write home to your parents and neighbors explain it to them. Tell them that the merchants and manufacturers want a better quality of fiber, and that unless we send them better fiber, in a few years we shall have a poor market, a poor industry, and poor people.

The province of Albay may well be called the center of the abacá industry. In 1903 the total amount of abacá exported from the Philippine Islands was a little over two



FIELD OF ABACA PROTECTED BY NUMEROUS SHADE TREES, SORSOGON PROVINCE, LUZON

than one-half that of abacá alone. Or, out of every dollar that comes into the Philippine Islands in return for what we send out, sixty-six cents is for abacá. This fact, that abacá is the first and most important product of the country, is one reason why we should know about it. But there is a second, and more important, reason. The abacá industry, at the present time, is in a very unsatisfactory condition. For a number of years we have been exporting enormous quantities of badly-cleaned, inferior fiber. The great cordage manufacturers in London, and New York, and San Francisco have repeatedly asked for a better quality of abacá, and yet we continue to send them this inferior fiber. Unless we pay some attention to these requests and improve the quality of abacá, these manufacturers will soon begin to use "sisal," and other cheaper fibers, in place of abacá. You can easily see that it is just as important that we should be able to sell our abacá as it is that we

million piculs. Of this two million piculs, Albay alone produced five hundred thousand, or one-fourth of the entire production of the Islands. The second province was Samar with 290,000 piculs; the third, Sorsogon with 282,000 piculs; the fourth, Leyte with 138,000 piculs; and the fifth, Camarines with 166,000 piculs. Aside from these five leading provinces, abacá is grown in the mountains of Cavite, Batangas, and Tayabas; and in Mindoro, Marinduque, Romblon, Masbate, Panay, Negros, Bohol, Mindanao, and on many of the smaller islands. We are frequently asked which province produces the best abacá, and this is a rather difficult question to answer as nearly all of the provinces produce some very good fiber and a great deal that is inferior in quality. The abacá of Marinduque is usually of excellent color and texture, while some of the longest fiber comes from the district of Davao in southern Mindanao.

In selecting a location for a plantation, the abacá planter must consider, first of all, the climate and the soil. With respect to climate, abacá requires the following conditions: a heavy and evenly distributed rainfall, a moist atmosphere, a high degree of temperature, and protection from severe winds. The principal reason why Albay and southern Mindanao are such excellent abacá growing districts is, that in these localities there is a heavy rainfall throughout the greater part of the year. Here in Manila we have such a long dry season that the abacá plant, unless irrigated, would suffer serious injury.

The second requirement, the amount of moisture in the air, or the degree of atmospheric humidity as it is called, has, also, a very important effect on the growth of abacá. The degree of atmospheric humidity is very different in different parts of the Islands, and as this condition of humidity is almost as necessary as rainfall, it should always be considered by the abacá planter. As to temperature and winds, it is only necessary to remember that abacá, requiring as it does a high degree of temperature, should not be grown in the more mountainous districts; and, if cultivated in localities that are subject to frequent and severe winds, it should be planted in sheltered valleys or be protected by larger trees.

With the soil, as with the climate, the first consideration is that of moisture. Abacá will not thrive in a poorly drained, wet soil; it must have, however, a continuous and abundant supply of water. To secure this condition of soil, abacá is usually planted on the hillsides in the provinces where there is a heavy rainfall. This system secures an abundant supply of water, and a good natural drainage when the supply of water becomes too great. One other requirement with respect to the soil is, that it should contain a large amount of humus, or decayed vegetable matter. This humus will enable the soil to retain water, thus keeping it moist and cool.

The abacá planter in selecting a location for his plantation should consider, not only the climatic and soil conditions, but also the supply and quality of available labor; the supply of suckers for planting; the supply of wood, water, and building materials; the facilities for land and water transportation; and the distance from a market. The first work of the planter will be to secure whatever number of laborers may be required, and the erection of necessary buildings. The future work of developing the plantation will be along four general lines: the preparation of the land, planting, cultivation, and harvesting.

The land should first be cleared of all growth except such trees as are to be left for shade, this work being done during the dry season. All of the waste material is allowed to remain on the ground until thoroughly dry, and is then collected and burned. It is the usual custom in many of the provinces, after the land has been cleared and burned over, to proceed at once with the planting, without any plowing or other preparation of the soil. Camotes, or corn, are first planted, and afterwards the abacá. The corn furnishes shade for the young abacá plants, while the camote vines soon cover the ground and prevent, to a

considerable extent, the growth of weeds. Where the land is filled with stumps and rocks, and in localities where it is difficult to secure carabaos for plowing, this method has its advantages and is, perhaps, the only one that can well be followed. Where it is possible to thoroughly clear the land, and where animals and implements are available, it is much more satisfactory to plow and harrow before planting. This system will be more expensive at the outset, but the more rapid growth of the crop and the increased yield on land thus prepared will, in the end, more than pay for the additional first cost.

The second step is that of planting. The land should be lined out with a cord or bamboo poles, and small stakes driven at equal distances apart where the plants are to be set. The rows should be from 9 to 12 feet apart each way, depending on the variety of abacá planted and on the nature of the soil. A new plantation may be started in any one of three ways: by the use of seed, suckers, or root sections. The only advantage in using seed is, that the first cost is less. As this method requires six months or a year longer for the plants to mature, it is seldom, or never, followed. The ordinary method of propagation is by the use of suckers. These suckers grow from the root of the "mother plant," and can be obtained on any large plantation at a cost of from \$15 to \$25 per thousand.

The work of cultivation will depend on the system that has been followed in planting. Where camotes have been planted with the abacá, the only cultivation required is to keep the soil loose immediately around the abacá plants, thus allowing the free growth of suckers. It will also be necessary to go over the plantation every few weeks during the first two years in order to clear out all grass and weeds. After the second year abacá will shade the ground, and, if proper cultivation has been kept up during the first two years, but little further attention will be required. If the land has been thoroughly cleared and plowed before planting, and the abacá set out in straight rows, subsequent cultivation may be done with animals. Under these conditions one laborer with a carabao can take care of 20 acres at a cost of \$15 per month.

The number of months, or years, after abacá is planted before the first stalks can be cut, varies considerably with different varieties and in different provinces. A long period of dry weather may delay the first cutting for six months. Under very favorable conditions some of the stalks may mature in 18 months; ordinarily, however, it will require from two to three years. A great deal of abacá is harvested before it is mature, and some is allowed to remain too long before it is cut. This is one of the reasons why we get so much inferior fiber. The stalks should be cut when the plant is in flower and before the fruit has developed, as either before or after this time the fiber is weak and of poor quality.

The work of cutting and stripping abacá probably a great many of you have seen. The stalk is cut near the surface of the ground and should be cut diagonally, as

otherwise water will collect upon, and rot, the main root, which is still growing new shoots. A single stalk of abacá is made up of 20 or 30 different parts, or sections. In the center of the stalk is the pulpy pith, perhaps an inch and a half in diameter, and around this pith, these overlapping sections. The fiber is contained in the outer portion of each one of these sections. In order to extract the fiber the abacá stripper, sitting on the ground, first lays a stalk of abacá across his knees. He then takes a short piece of bone or wood, inserts it under the outer part of one of the other sections of the stalk, and tears off a long strip or ribbon of fibrous material. The balance of the section which contains but little fiber is torn off and thrown away. In this manner each section is worked, down to the center of the stalk.

These fiber ribbons are then collected and taken to

question of stripping is, at the present time, the most important matter for consideration in the whole abacá industry. There are two things which tend to make the quality of the fiber either good or bad. If the stripping knife is not held down firmly on the block of wood, the individual fibers are not separated and only a part of the pulp is removed. This method of stripping requires less labor and produces a greater weight of fiber, but the fiber is of very inferior quality. This same kind of coarse, inferior fiber is produced when a knife having a sawlike edge is used. Instead of all of the individual fibers being separated, as they are under a smooth-edged knife, thick filaments pass between each tooth of the knife. This half-cleaned fiber, when dry, is coarse, brown, and lacking in strength. It is this use of saw knives that is the principal cause of our inferior abacá fiber. As a result of using these serrated



UNLOADING HEMP AT CEBU

some place where an apparatus for stripping the fiber has been set up. This stripping apparatus is very simple and is easily made. The trunk of a small tree, perhaps ten feet long, is set up in a horizontal position about two feet from the surface of the ground. On the upper surface of this log is fastened a short piece of smooth, hard wood, and over this piece of wood is placed the stripping knife. This knife is so fastened that the handle is pulled up by a bamboo spring and pulled down by a foot lever. In the work of stripping the fiber, the laborer raises the knife, inserts one or two ribbons, allows the knife to drop, and then pulls the ribbons through with a strong, steady pull. This drawing of the ribbons under a knife separates the individual fibers and removes the pulp and waste.

The quality of fiber which we get depends almost entirely on the way in which it is drawn, or stripped. This

knives the markets have been flooded with enormous quantities of inferior fiber, and cordage manufacturers are continually making complaint about the quality of abacá. The whole future of the industry depends very largely on the position which abacá continues to hold in the world's markets. It is, therefore, manifestly to the interest of every producer of abacá to discourage the use of the serrated stripping knives.

Abacá, after being stripped, requires only to be dried for a few hours before being baled. From the plantations the fiber is sent to the nearest market, and from the local markets it is shipped to Manila and Cebu. In these cities it is pressed into bales, each of which contains two piculs of fiber. From Manila and Cebu abacá is sent to all parts of the world, the largest shipments being to the United States and Great Britain.

THE GOVERNMENT AND THE LAWS OF THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

III. THE PHILIPPINE COMMISSION—ITS CREATION, AND GENERAL POWERS

The Civil Government of the Philippine Islands, like the Military Government which preceded it and with which it was for a time closely associated, has from the beginning been under the general direction of the President of the United States, and the official relations have, for the most part, been conducted through the Secretary of War.

In the course of time it became necessary, for the orderly administration of the territory, to establish a special intermediary bureau as a branch of the War Department. This intermediary bureau is known as "The Bureau of Insular Affairs," and is, in practice, the Washington administrative office for Philippine affairs, through which are transmitted the orders and instructions of the President of the United States and of the Secretary of War, and all other official communications affecting the government of the Islands. The official title of the head of the office is "The Chief of the Bureau of Insular Affairs."

The first Philippine Commission was appointed by the President on January twentieth, 1899. This body consisted of five members and is familiarly styled "The Schurman Commission," an appellation derived from the name of its president, the Honorable Jacob Schurman. The purpose of the President may be gathered from the instructions accompanying the appointment:

The commissioners will endeavor, without interference with the military authorities of the United States now in control of the Philippines, to ascertain what amelioration in the condition of the inhabitants and what improvements in public order may be practicable, and for this purpose they will study attentively the existing social and political state of the various populations, particularly as regards the forms of local government, the administration of justice, the collection of customs and other taxes, the means of transportation, and the need of public improvements. They will report through the Department of State, according to the forms customary or hereafter prescribed for transmitting and preserving such recommendations, the results of their observations and reflections, and will recommend such executive action as may from time to time seem to them wise and useful.

The appointment of this first Commission was also a tentative measure, an additional preparatory step. They were not sent to organize a government, but to see what could be done; to investigate the political, economic and social conditions, and to recommend a suitable form of government. The suggestions and recommendations of this Commission were embodied in their report of January thirty-first, 1900, which, on February second following, was transmitted to the Congress by the President. The entire report consists of four volumes.

On the fifteenth day of February of the same year the President, in execution of the policy indicated in his annual message to Congress of December fifth, 1899, issued an order contemplating the return of the Commission to the Islands, "or such members thereof as can be secured," and this is the order which resulted in the inauguration of the Government of the Philippine Islands by the present Philippine Commission.

About three weeks later, on March seventh, 1900, the President promulgated his now famous "Instructions to the Commission," which were transmitted through the Secretary of War. These Instructions reveal the plan for the new government, as it existed in the mind of the President, and they will always be of historical interest to every citizen of the Philippine Islands. Although the fundamental principles contained in this historical document have since been embodied in the laws of Congress, it is still worthy of study by every inhabitant of the Philippines who desires to understand the present order of things political, inasmuch as it is the principal foundation and support of all the measures adopted by the Philippine Commission during a most important period of the reconstruction. The Instructions are here given complete in the form in which they were issued

THE PRESIDENT'S INSTRUCTIONS TO THE COMMISSION

HON. WILLIAM H. TAFT,
*President Board of Commissioners
to the Philippine Islands.*

EXECUTIVE MANSION, April 7, 1900.

SIR: In the message transmitted to the Congress on the 5th of December, 1899, I said, speaking of the Philippine Islands: "As long as the insurrection continues the military arm must necessarily be supreme. But there is no reason why steps should not be taken from time to time to inaugurate governments essentially popular in their form as fast as territory is held and controlled by our troops. To this end I am considering the advisability of the return of the Commission, or such of the members thereof as can be secured, to aid the existing authorities and facilitate this work throughout the Islands."

To give effect to the intention thus expressed, I have appointed Hon. William H. Taft, of Ohio; Prof. Dean C. Worcester, of Michigan; Hon. Luke E. Wright, of Tennessee; Hon. Henry C. Ide, of Vermont; and Prof. Bernard Moses, of California, Commissioners to the Philippine Islands, to continue and perfect the work of organizing and establishing civil government already commenced by the military authorities, subject in all respects to any laws which Congress may hereafter enact.

The Commissioners named will meet and act as a board, and the Hon. William H. Taft is designated as president of the board. It is probable that the transfer of authority from military commanders to civil officers will be gradual and will occupy a considerable period. Its successful accomplishment and the maintenance of peace and order in the meantime will require the most perfect coöperation between the military and civil authorities in the Islands, and both should be directed during the transition period by the same executive department. The Commission will therefore report to the Secretary of War, and all their actions will be subject to your approval and control.

You will instruct the Commission to proceed to the city of Manila, where they will make their principal office, and to communicate with the Military Governor of the Philippine Islands, whom you will at the same time direct to render to them every assistance within his power in the performance of their duties. Without hampering them by too specific instructions, they should in general be enjoined, after making themselves familiar with the conditions and needs of the country, to devote their attention in the first instance to the establishment of municipal governments in which the natives of the Islands, both in the cities and in the rural communities, shall be afforded the opportunity to manage their own local affairs to the fullest extent of which they are capable and subject to the least degree of supervision and control which a careful study of their capacities and observation of the workings of native control show to be consistent with the maintenance of law, order, and loyalty. The next subject in order of importance should be the organization of government in the larger administrative divisions, corresponding to counties, departments, or provinces, in which the common interests of many or several municipalities falling within the same tribal lines, or the same natural geographical limits, may best be subserved by a common administration. Whenever the Commission is of the opinion that the condition of affairs in the Islands is such that the central administration may safely be transferred from military to civil control, they will report that conclusion to you, with their recommendations as to the form of central government to be established for the purpose of taking over the control.

Beginning with the first day of September, 1900, the authority to exercise, subject to my approval, through the Secretary of War, that part of the power of government in the Philippine Islands which is of a legislative nature is to be transferred from the Military Governor of the Islands to this Commission, to be thereafter exercised by them in the place and stead of the Military Governor, under such rules and regulations as you may prescribe, until the establishment of the civil central government for the Islands contemplated in the last foregoing paragraph, or until Congress shall otherwise provide. Exercise of this legislative authority will include the making of rules and orders, having the effect of law, for the raising of revenue by taxes, customs duties, and imposts; the appropriation and expenditure of public funds of the Islands; the establishment of an educational system throughout the Islands; the establishment of a system to secure an efficient civil service; the organization and establishment of courts; the organization and establishment of municipal and departmental governments, and all other matters of a civil nature for which the Military Governor is now competent to provide by rules or orders of a legislative character.

The Commission will also have power, during the same period, to appoint to office such officers under the judicial, educational, and civil-service systems, and in the municipal and departmental governments, as shall be provided for. Until the complete transfer of control the Military Governor will remain the chief executive head of the government of the Islands, and will exercise the executive authority now possessed by him and not herein expressly assigned to the Commission, subject, however, to the rules and orders enacted by the Commission in the exercise of the legislative powers conferred upon them. In the meantime the municipal and departmental governments will continue to report to the Military Governor, and be subject to his administrative supervision and control, under your direction, but that supervision and control will be confined within the narrowest limits consistent with the requirements that the power of government in the municipalities and departments shall be honestly and effectively exercised and that law and order and individual freedom shall be maintained.

All legislative rules and orders, establishments of government, and appointments to office by the Commission will take effect immediately, or at such times as they shall designate, subject to your approval and action upon the coming in of the Commission's reports, which are to be made from time to time as their action is taken. Wherever civil governments are constituted under the direction of the Commission, such military posts, garrisons, and forces will be continued for the suppression of insurrection and brigandage and the maintenance of law and order, as the military commander shall deem requisite, and the military forces shall be at all times subject under his orders to the call of the civil authorities for the maintenance of law and order and the enforcement of their authority. In the establishment of municipal governments the Commission will take as the basis of their work the governments established by the Military Governor under his order of August 8, 1899, and under the report of the board constituted by the Military Governor by his order of January 29, 1900, to formulate and report a plan of municipal government, of which his honor Cayetano Arellano, president of the Audiencia, was chairman, and they will give to the conclusions of that board the weight and consideration which the high character and distinguished abilities of its members justify. In the constitution of department or provincial governments they will give especial attention to the existing government of the Island of Negros, constituted with the approval of the people of that Island, under the order of the Military Governor of July 22, 1899, and after verifying, so far as may be practicable, the reports of the successful working of the government, they will be guided by the experience thus acquired, so far as it may be applicable to the conditions existing in other portions of the Philippines. They will avail themselves, to the fullest degree practicable, of the conclusions reached by the previous Commission to the Philippines.

In the distribution of powers among the governments organized by the Commission, the presumption is always to be in favor of the smaller subdivision, so that all the powers which can properly be exercised by the municipal government shall be vested in that government, and all the powers of a more general character which can be exercised by the departmental government shall be vested in that government, and so that in the governmental system which is the result of the process the Central Government of the Islands, following the example of the distribution of the powers between the States and the National Government of the United States, shall have no direct administration except of matters of purely general concern, and shall have only such supervision and control over local governments as may be necessary to secure and enforce faithful and efficient administration by local officers.

The many different degrees of civilization and varieties of custom and capacity among the people of the different islands preclude very definite instruction as to the part which the people shall take in the selection of their own officers, but these general rules are to be observed: That in all cases the municipal officers who administer the local affairs of the people are to be selected by the people, and

that wherever officers of more extended jurisdiction are to be selected in any way natives of the Islands are to be preferred, and if they can be found competent and willing to perform the duties they are to receive the offices in preference to any others. It will be necessary to fill some offices for the present with Americans, which, after a time, may well be filled by natives of the Islands. As soon as practicable a system for ascertaining the merit and fitness of candidates for civil offices should be put in force. An indispensable qualification for all offices and positions of trust and authority in the Islands must be absolute and unconditional loyalty to the United States, and absolute and unhampered authority and power to remove and punish any officer deviating from that standard must at all times be retained in the hands of the central authority of the Islands.

In all the forms of government and administrative provisions which they are authorized to prescribe, the Commission should bear in mind that the government which they are establishing is designed not for our satisfaction or for the expression of our theoretical views, but for the happiness, peace, and prosperity of the people of the Philippine Islands, and the measures adopted should be made to conform to their customs, their habits, and even their prejudices, to the fullest extent consistent with the accomplishment of the indispensable requisites of just and effective government. At the same time the Commission should bear in mind, and the people of the Islands should be made plainly to understand, that there are certain great principles of government which have been made the basis of our governmental system, which we deem essential to the rule of law and the maintenance of individual freedom, and of which they have, unfortunately, been denied the experience possessed by us; that there are also certain practical rules of government which we have found to be essential to the preservation of these great principles of liberty and law, and that these principles and these rules of government must be established and maintained in the Islands for the sake of their liberty and happiness, however much they may conflict with the customs or laws of procedure with which they are familiar. It is evident that the most enlightened thought of the Philippine Islands fully appreciates the importance of these principles and rules, and they will inevitably within a short time command universal assent. Upon every division and branch of the Government of the Philippines, therefore, must be imposed these inviolable rules:

That no person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law; that private property shall not be taken for public use without just compensation; that in all criminal prosecutions the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation, to be confronted with the witnesses against him, to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense; that excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishment inflicted; that no person shall be put twice in jeopardy for the same offense or be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself; that the right to be secure against unreasonable searches and seizures shall not be violated; that neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall exist except as a punishment for crime, that no bill of attainder or ex post facto law shall be passed; that no law shall be passed abridging the freedom of speech or of the press or of the rights of the people to peaceably assemble and petition the Government for a redress of grievances; that no law shall be made respecting an establishment of religion or prohibiting the free exercise thereof, and that the free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship without discrimination or preference shall forever be allowed.

It will be the duty of the Commission to make a thorough investigation into the titles of the large tracts of land held or claimed by individuals or by religious orders; into the justice of the claims and complaints made against such landholders by the people of the Islands, or any part of the people, and to seek by wise and peaceable measures a just settlement of the controversies and redress of the wrongs which have caused strife and bloodshed in the past. In the performance of this duty the Commission is enjoined to see that no injustice is done; to have regard for substantial right and equity, disregarding technicalities so far as substantial right permits, and to observe the following rules: That the provision of the treaty of Paris pledging the United States to the protection of all rights of property in the Islands, and as well the principle of our own Government which prohibits the taking of private property without due process of law, shall not be violated; that the welfare of the people of the Islands, which should be a paramount consideration, shall be attained consistently with this rule of property right; that if it becomes necessary for the public interest of the people of the Islands to dispose of claims to property which the Commission finds to be not lawfully acquired and held, disposition shall be made thereof by due legal procedure, in which there shall be full opportunity for fair and impartial hearing and judgment; that if the same public interests require the extinguishment of property rights lawfully acquired and held, due compensation shall be made out of the public

treasury therefor; that no form of religion and no minister of religion shall be forced upon any community or upon any citizen of the Islands; that, upon the other hand, no minister of religion shall be interfered with or molested in following his calling, and that the separation between state and church shall be real, entire, and absolute.

It will be the duty of the Commission to promote and extend and, as they find occasion, to improve the system of education already inaugurated by the military authorities. In doing this they should regard as of first importance the extension of a system of primary education which shall be free to all, and which shall tend to fit the people for the duties of citizenship and for the ordinary avocations of a civilized community. This instruction should be given, in the first instance, in every part of the Islands in the language of the people. In view of the great number of languages spoken by the different tribes, it is especially important to the prosperity of the Islands that a common medium of communication may be established, and it is obviously desirable that this medium should be the English language. Especial attention should be at once given to affording full opportunity to all the people of the Islands to acquire the use of the English language.

It may well be that the main changes which should be made in the system of taxation and in the body of the laws under which the people are governed, except such changes as have already been made by the military government, should be relegated to the Civil Government which is to be established under the auspices of the Commission. It will, however, be the duty of the Commission to inquire diligently as to whether there are any further changes which ought not to be delayed, and, if so, they are authorized to make such changes, subject to your approval. In doing so they are to bear in mind that taxes which tend to penalize or repress industry and enterprise are to be avoided; that provisions for taxation should be simple, so that they may be understood by the people; that they should affect the fewest practicable subjects of taxation which will serve for the general distribution of the burden. The main body of the laws which regulate the rights and obligations of the people should be maintained with as little interference as possible. Changes made should be mainly in procedure and in the criminal laws to secure speedy and impartial trials, and at the same time effective administration and respect for individual rights.

In dealing with the uncivilized tribes of the Islands, the Commission should adopt the same course followed by Congress in permitting the tribes of our North American Indians to maintain their tribal organization and government, and under which many of those tribes are now living in peace and contentment, surrounded by a civilization to which they are unable or unwilling to conform. Such tribal governments should, however, be subjected to wise and firm regulation; and, without undue or petty interference, constant and active effort should be exercised to prevent barbarous practices and introduce civilized customs.

Upon all officers and employees of the United States, both civil and military, should be impressed a sense of the duty to observe not merely the material but the personal and social rights of the people of the Islands, and to treat them with the same courtesy and respect for their personal dignity which the people of the United States are accustomed to require from each other.

The articles of capitulation of the city of Manila on the 13th of August, 1898, concluded with these words:

"This city, its inhabitants, its churches and religious worship, its educational establishments, and its private property of all descriptions are placed under the special safeguard of the faith and honor of the American Army."

I believe that this pledge has been faithfully kept. As high and sacred an obligation rests upon the Government of the United States to give protection for property and life, civil and religious freedom, and wise, firm, and unselfish guidance in the paths of peace and prosperity to all the people of the Philippine Islands. I charge this Commission to labor for the full performance of this obligation, which concerns the honor and conscience of their country, in the firm hope that through their labors all the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands may come to look back with gratitude to the day when God gave victory to American arms at Manila and set their land under the sovereignty and protection of the people of the United States.

WILLIAM MCKINLEY.

On the first day of September, 1900, the Philippine Commission announced that they would begin the exercise of the governmental authority conferred upon them. Thus was launched "The Government of the Philippine Islands."

In the month of September, 1901, the statesman who penned the historic Instructions was assassinated, and at his death the Honorable Theodore Roosevelt, then Vice-President, succeeded to the presidency for the balance of the term by virtue of the fifth clause of section one of

Article II of the Constitution of the United States, which prescribes:

In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

The double contingency referred to in the foregoing clause was afterwards provided for by the Act of Congress of March first, 1792. This law directs that, under such conditions, the president *pro tempore* of the Senate or, in default of such officer then the speaker of the House of Representatives, shall act as President until the disability has ceased to exist, or until a new President is elected.

At the November elections of 1904, Mr. Roosevelt was elected President of the United States by one of the largest majorities ever given for a presidential candidate. In America, where the candidate for the office of Chief Executive is thoroughly canvassed and freely elected, an overwhelming majority has an especial significance. It means that a strong faith in the man has permeated the Union, that he embodies the sentiments and principles which, at the time, are the choice of the country. A choice thus made represents, under our theory of government, the collective wisdom of the whole choosing body and, therefore, the Filipino people may rest assured that the American people have chosen well. Moreover, they may confidently expect that the new President, by his championship of practical measures, will do all that any man in his exalted position can do to promote the happiness and material prosperity of the Archipelago. Yet a wise and farseeing policy requires that the Philippine Islands be administered in the united interests of the whole, not for the special benefit of any minor part.

After the issue of the Instructions the President continued, as before, to direct the course of Insular affairs, in the exercise of his express and implied powers, until March the second, 1901, when the Congress in the act making annual appropriations for the maintenance of the army of the United States enacted, as a part of that law, the following provisions called "The Spooner Amendment," a title derived from the name of the senator, the Honorable John C. Spooner, of Wisconsin, who presented the amendment:

All military, civil, and judicial powers necessary to govern the Philippine Islands, acquired from Spain by the treaties concluded at Paris on the tenth day of December, eighteen hundred and ninety-eight, and at Washington on the seventh day of November, nineteen hundred, shall, until otherwise provided by Congress, be vested in such person and persons and shall be exercised in such manner as the President of the United States shall direct, for the establishment of civil government and for maintaining and protecting the inhabitants of said Islands in the free enjoyment of their liberty, property, and religion: *Provided*, That all franchises granted under the authority hereof shall contain a reservation of the right to alter, amend, or repeal the same.

Until a permanent government shall have been established in said archipelago, full reports shall be made to Congress on or before the first day of each regular session of all legislative acts and proceedings of the temporary government instituted under the provisions hereof; and full reports of the acts and doings of said government, and as to the conditions of the archipelago and of its people, shall be made to the President, including all information which may be useful to Congress in providing for a more permanent government:

Provided, That no sale or lease or other disposition of the public lands or of the timber thereon or the mining rights therein shall be made: And, provided further, That no franchise shall be granted which is not approved by the President of the United States and is not, in his judgment, clearly necessary for the immediate government of the Islands and indispensable for the interests of the people thereof, and which cannot, without great public mischief, be postponed until the establishment of permanent civil government; and all such franchises shall terminate one year after the establishment of such permanent civil government.

Before the enactment of this amendment, the President had acted upon his own initiative, acquiesced in by Congress. By this law the Congress publicly confirmed all that had previously been done and made to the President a specific grant of authority to govern the Philippine Islands, subject to the limitations contained in the amendment, which continued in force until by other laws Congress changed and extended the powers of government.

The treaty of November seventh, 1900, referred to in the "Spooner Amendment," is the agreement by which Spain, for the sum of one hundred thousand dollars, relinquished to the United States the Islands of Cagayan, Sulu, Sibutu and their dependencies, and other islands belonging to the Philippine group, lying outside the limits defined in Article III of the Treaty of Paris.

If you will notice the amendment particularly, you will see that it contains many limitations upon the government that was to be established. The whole power was to be exercised in such manner as the President might direct, not as the Commission thought best. No franchise could be granted for a definite period. For the prosecution of enterprises of any considerable magnitude, a large amount of capital is necessary, and capitalists do not enter upon great projects of industrial development where the assured life of the enterprise is so uncertain. Public lands in general could neither be sold nor leased. Homesteads for settlers were out of the question. The sale of timber from the public lands, for commercial purposes, was forbidden. The exploitation of the mineral resources was impossible. In short, the further material advance in manufacture, agriculture, forestry, mining, shipping, and the construction of railways, by the infusion of that activity which accompanies the investment of new capital in the larger fields of industry, was inevitably postponed.

Compared with full governmental authority, it was a meager grant of power, and yet, together with the President's Instructions, it was substantially all the Philippine Commission had for over two years. This is a point to be borne in mind when the question is asked why the Government did or did not do certain things during that long period. Even now, and at all times when a like question arises, before resolving the proposition for or against the Government, it would be wise to first examine the supreme authority and see if there exist both the power to do and the duty to perform.

No man has a monopoly of the process of reasoning from known facts to just conclusions, and in political matters, consciously or unconsciously, men often distort the facts and arrange the premises to suit the conveniences of their own theories. Find the source of power upon which the question depends, study the law carefully, consider the

reasons and the circumstances, and then you will arrive very near to the truth, which is all we can ever do—except in the exact sciences.

The Government of the Philippine Islands is a government of enumerated rights and prohibited powers. There are two ways of defining the powers of a representative government, the one affirmative and the other negative. By the first method, all the powers to be exercised would require to be enumerated, from which it would follow that those not enumerated are prohibited. This would be a special grant, with a general prohibition. The second method would be, to enumerate all the powers that are prohibited, from which it would follow that those not prohibited might be exercised. This would be a general grant, with a special prohibition. The method adopted by the President in his Instructions, and by the Congress in the "Spooner Amendment," and particularly in the later Acts, is a combination of the two. This is what is meant by saying that the Government of the Philippine Islands is a government of enumerated rights and prohibited powers.

You will readily understand that a government, to be successful, must be adapted to local conditions, and that these are best known to those who have the best opportunities to observe and to study them, coupled with the ability to interpret their meaning politically. Fortunate in her administration is the mother country whose government, in colonial matters, is guided by the eyes of those who can see. It was, in a measure at least, a realization of these self-evident truths that ultimately induced Congress to enlarge the powers of the Commission.

Limitations upon the powers of government we shall have with us always. Without them, it may safely be said, a constitution would be useless, and representative government a failure. Lying back of their existence, and as one reason for their frequent insertion, is the axiom that power once conferred, whether upon one man or upon a body of men who constitute a government, national or local, always tends to increase itself and is rarely abdicated. A government without limitations, therefore, is not a representative government, or a government of the people; it is merely the arbitrary enforcement of the unrestricted will of a despotic ruler.

Under a representative government, there are ordinarily three methods by which power is increased or modified. The first is by legal enactment in the form of a law, which is the method best adapted for giving universal notice to the public. The second is by the issuance of orders, resolutions, rules or regulations, in the manner provided by law; and this method is also proper, when it does not go beyond the real scope of the law and change its original purpose. To ascertain whether a rule, regulation, or other direction is legal, compare it carefully with the law by virtue of which it professes to be issued. If it contains any radical departure therefrom, makes mandatory what the law prescribes as merely permissive, or vice versa, or purposes to bring within its control matters not contemplated by the law upon which it is predi-

cated, it is so far void—because the law is the source of the power to make the rule.

The third method, which is unlawful, is by usurpation of authority—the conscious and willful exercise of power not properly conferred by law, resolution, rule, or regulation. To prevent the use of the last named method, stringent laws are enacted and drastic measures are sometimes necessary, and both are justifiable. The abuse of political power by a public official is a violation of a sacred trust and a crime against the commonwealth.

In the course of events, it remained for the members of the Philippine Commission, more immediately for the Honorable William H. Taft, and the present Governor General and the Vice-Governor, to demonstrate the advisability and the necessity for greater local autonomy in matters of government, and to secure the removal of some of the restrictions which, in the judgment of Congress, were at first essential, but which none the less blocked the wheels of progress and kept the Government in a narrow path.

The powers of the Government of the Philippine Islands, even at this late day, are far from plenary—as we shall see upon an examination of the Acts of Congress. Such restrictions as still exist were retained by the Congress in what that sovereign body considered the interests of the Islands. Sooner or later, and for the same reason, one by one they will be modified or removed by the same power that imposed them.

Since the issue of the President's Instructions several changes have taken place in the Commission. In June, 1901, three Filipino members, the Honorable T. H. Pardo de Tavera, Benito Legarda, and José Luzuriaga, were appointed, their appointments to take effect on September the first, 1901, the beginning of the second year of the Commission's administration. Professor Bernard Moses retired from the Commission in 1902, and the Honorable James F. Smith was appointed to the vacancy on January the first, 1903. In December, 1903, the first Civil Governor, the Honorable William H. Taft, was called by the President to higher honors and appointed Secretary of War. This retirement left a temporary vacancy in the governorship, which was filled by the Vice-Governor acting as Civil Governor. On January the fourteenth, 1904, the Honorable Luke E. Wright and the Honorable Henry C. Ide were appointed Civil Governor and Vice-Governor, respectively, and were inaugurated on February the first of the same year. The appointment of the new Civil Governor created another vacancy, to which the Honorable W. Cameron Forbes was appointed on February the twenty-second, 1904. Finally, the Congress, by the Act now known as "The Cooper Bill," approved the sixth day of February, 1905, changed the official title of the Civil Governor to that of "Governor General of the Philippine Islands."

The Philippine Commission is now composed of the following members, arranged chronologically in the order of their appointment:

The Honorable Luke E. Wright, Governor General; the

Honorable Henry C. Ide, Vice Governor; the Honorable Dean C. Worcester, T. H. Pardo de Tavera, Benito Legarda, José Luzuriaga, James F. Smith, and W. Cameron Forbes.

The next chapter will treat further of the Philippine Commission, especially with reference to organization and legislation, the legislative committees, the executive departments, the preparation, submission, discussion, enactment and publication of the laws.

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